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ABSTRACT

GRADES OR AGES: K-6. SUBJECT MATTER: Language arts. ORGANIZATION AND PHYSICAL APPEARANCE: The guide is divided into sections: 1) listening, 2) speaking, 3) writing, and 4) reading. The sections on speaking and writing are further subdivided into units. A final section provides guidelines for evaluation of a local program. The guide is offset printed and spiral-bound with a paper cover. OBJECTIVES AND ACTIVITIES: Each section or unit lists several objectives and related activities. Some activities are merely listed; others are described in detail. Guidelines for identifying student readiness for various activities are included. INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS: Each section or unit contains a short list of related references, which includes books and journal articles. STUDENT ASSESSMENT: Each section or unit contains guidelines for student evaluation. The section on reading includes a list of commercially available reading tests and a list of major publishers of reading tests. (RT)

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ENGLISH LANGUAGE COMMUNICATION

GRADES K-SIX

The Subject Field Series

Bulletin Number C-Six

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The Illinois Curriculum Program
Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction
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EVALUATION OF A LOCAL PROGRAM

FOREWORD

The development of this bulletin represents the first attempt to place new state level materials in the hands of teachers regarding language arts since the *Illinois Curriculum and Course of Study Guide for Elementary Schools* was published in 1946. During the time between the appearance of the two volumes there has been a growing amount of research as well as innovations in teaching practices and terminology.

In the preparation of *English Language Communication* the committee elected to be more specific and descriptive, even in the choice of title for the bulletin. One of the reasons is the fact that a companion volume in The Illinois Curriculum Program C-Series is being prepared on teaching foreign languages in the elementary school.

Appreciation is expressed to the committee, each of whom shared writing responsibilities. Likewise all members evaluated the materials and concurred in their appropriateness for inclusion. For the outstanding contributions of Dr. Viola Theman, who brought the work of the group to fruition, words of special commendation are in order.

Indebtedness is also expressed to the graduate students of Northwestern University who reviewed selected portions of the manuscript in its early stages. Mrs. Kathleen Mulryan, Consultant in Language Arts, Oak Park Public Schools (District No. 97), is also recognized for her constructive criticism of the manuscript prior to publication.

For the photographs used in this bulletin grateful acknowledgment is made to Illinois State Normal University, The Chicago Public Schools, Southern Illinois University, and the Children's School of the School of Education, Northwestern University.

Without the leadership and cooperative attitude on the part of various members of this office and the administrators approving the participation of committee members, classroom teachers would have waited much longer to receive this important and timely publication.

Therefore, in cooperation with the lay and professional groups represented on the Illinois Curriculum Council, the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction is pleased to sponsor and present this curriculum bulletin.

RAY PAGE

Superintendent of Public Instruction

Two bulletins on *Communication in the High School* have been prepared for teachers in grades VII-XII. The first includes materials on the speaking and listening phases of communication, whereas the second considers the areas of English language, composition and literature.

Other curriculum bulletins completed in the C-Series for elementary schools are: *School Begins With Kindergarten* (C-One); *Thinking in the Language of Mathematics* (C-Two); *Strengthening Science Teaching in Elementary Schools* (C-Three); *Children Learn and Grow Through Art Experiences* (C-Four); *Learning and Living Music* (C-Five); and *Teaching the Social Studies* (C-Seven).

Woodson W. Fishback
Director, Curriculum Development
and the Illinois Curriculum Program

POINT OF VIEW

This guide for instruction in communication by means of the English language has been written by a committee of ten. The committee's purpose can and should be stated clearly at the outset, for the reader may well question the appearance of yet another publication in a curriculum field already seemingly surfeited with books, magazine articles, pamphlets, yearbooks, and the proceedings of professional conference groups.

To a large extent it is precisely this profusion of material, both current and historical, in the language arts field that presents difficulties for local school faculties in their attempts to find time adequate to read all the pertinent research and to weigh the ofttimes conflicting findings prior to devising a local curriculum guide.

Purpose

In essence, then, the members of this committee accepted the challenge to prepare a guide to assist (1) local school groups who are vitally interested in improving classroom teaching of English communication and (2) those who have the responsibility for preparing a guide for this phase of the instructional program. This Illinois State Guide for Kindergarten through Grade Six is suggestive and not prescriptive or limiting in any sense. Of potential assistance to teachers, it is a manual which clearly advocates the necessity for adapting its recommendations to the individual community as well as to the teacher and the pupil.

The committee recognizes that numerous other source materials are readily accessible and earnestly recommends their reading. Attention is directed, also, to the selected bibliographies which appear at the end of each section.

Four Essential Differences

This guide differs from other state guides in one or more of the following four respects:

1. This publication represents the committee's efforts to prepare a convenient compendium. It is a synthesis and an interpretation of major research and professional experience in three fields, namely, in language development, in educational psychology, and in educational philosophy which the committee believes to be basic to curriculum construction in English language communication. It focuses on certain key ideas and points of view in pertinent, professional literature. The problems of teaching the language arts are complex, and the research studies on the component parts are, at times, relatively inconclusive. Common sense prompted the committee to include general research findings of child develop-

ment, of the learning process, and of American expectations for our children.

This is an *idea* book. It gives soundings as to where we stand currently amidst the flood of publications based on research and experience.

2. It is also the function of this guide to state succinctly the status of some of the unresolved issues in the language arts such as those of individualized reading, phonics, and language usage, upon which professional workers are sharply divided.
3. This guide is intended to assist teachers in the selection of instructional experiences as well as instructional materials such as textbooks, library resources, and audio-visual aids. This assistance is not offered directly by the selection or rejection of specific samples but by the provision of a point of view by which the teacher can evaluate the relative merits of a specific experience or material aid.
4. This guide indicates that the language arts can and should have significant content, *ideas* rather than the mere assimilation of the mechanics of form. Communication is more than a collection of skills. One communicates ideas, feelings, and emotions to someone. Communication is strictly a person-to-person affair and not a mechanical accumulation of rules of format, grammar, and spelling.

Agreements

The members of the Committee reached agreement on the following ideas as representative of the best pertinent research and thinking:

1. Language is a tool; it is not an end in itself. The individual uses this tool to communicate, to facilitate thinking, and to reduce tension, as in creative writing. Learning how to use language effectively is one of the most important developmental tasks of the individual and constitutes one of the primary instructional purposes of the school.

   Concerning language usage, the position taken by the Committee is that language is relatively appropriate or inappropriate according to the time, the occasion, the purpose, and the individuals concerned; that rightness and wrongness as applied to language usage are terms to be avoided, especially with children, because of their implications of morality. The committee also recognizes the dynamic tendency of the American language to grow and to change with respect to vocabulary, spelling, punctuation, and grammar.
2. The child's ability to communicate through language is, in turn,

an aspect of his general development. In this connection we can see two-fold relations:

Communication is affected by the child's total development.

The child's total development is, in turn, affected by his language ability.

The child's thinking, emotional development, and his perception of himself and of others, therefore, are affected by and affect language. Language patterns are an integral part of one's total behavior and personality. Growth in the child's thinking is paralleled by more frequent use of complex language patterns. As the child's thinking matures there is an increase in expressed relationships, subordination of detail, and complex sentence structure. The major effort of instruction, therefore, should be directed toward an increase in children's opportunities for meaningful experiences, and toward extending their comprehension of such experiences, rather than toward directing a frontal attack on modification of pupils' language patterns. The teacher who makes superficial changes in the verbal forms used by his pupils does not change their thinking and feeling. But, children who think differently do speak differently.

3. Experience: Because language is a vital part of the life of the child, the instructional program should facilitate (both in time schedule and in actual practice) abundant opportunity for both direct and vicarious experiences. The younger the child, the greater is the need for first-hand experiences as a part of language and thought growth. Vicarious experiences seldom, if ever, can replace reality. Only with increasing maturity can vicarious experience assist in developing depth of understanding.

4. Learning: immediate or future? There is real need for emphasizing learnings that children recognize as their current needs. The teacher's role is to extend the real needs through providing situations that call for extended skills, for language in action rather than for overemphasis on the trite, lesser appeal of the "someday you'll need" approach. Use and success now are strong motivating forces in learning.

5. Instruction: group or individual? Group experiences have potential value for the child's development as a whole as well as provide excellent opportunities for purposeful communication. If the possibilities of group instruction are to be fully realized the teacher must assume responsibility for fostering desirable working relations

among pupils, including the purposeful verbal exchange of ideas. While instruction can and should be both individual and group, learning is always individual.

6. Growth: in complete units or continuous? Particularly in the area of language which permeates all subject matter it is important that instruction provide for continuity and increasing facility in usage. Teaching practice has tended to over-emphasize the unit approach and artificial segmentation. These sometimes result from too great reliance on the sequence found only in language arts textbooks.

7. Communication is a unitary process. It is important to separate listening, speaking, reading, and writing only for purposes of considering each facet of communication as presented in this guide. In reality no one of them exists without at least one other. Therefore, we should not conclude from the fact that this guide considers each of them in serial order that they should be taught separately. In life they are inextricably interrelated. The receiving of ideas from others as in listening and reading is counterbalanced by speaking and writing, by which means we express and clarify ideas. Nor should it be assumed that listening and reading are passive or purely receptive states. Intelligent reading and listening require reactions to the ideas presented through symbols.

8. Oral communication is recognized as being as important in the life of the individual as is recorded communication, especially because of the crucial importance of speech to all other forms of symbol usage. All four phases of communications — listening, speaking, reading, and writing — are functional tools, not formal exercises, not ends in themselves. They are tools with which to enrich one's life.

9. Evaluation: by whom and by what standards? Group participation in the appraisal of school activities and accomplishments has values beyond mere teacher approval. Opportunity should be provided by the teacher for the expression of pupil opinion to the end that the child may experience sustained growth in self-evaluation. The child's opportunities to appraise his work should begin early. His ability to evaluate will parallel his maturity and opportunity to engage in it. Although pupil evaluation at the outset is apt to be relatively short-term appraisal expressed in terms of the immediate situation or of the next steps to be taken, the child should be guided to plan and to evaluate in time units of increasing length.

The teacher continuously makes both short- and long-term ap-

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praisals of the results of his own efforts as well as those of his pupils. In addition, he helps children see some of their long-term gains by calling attention to their short-term successes.

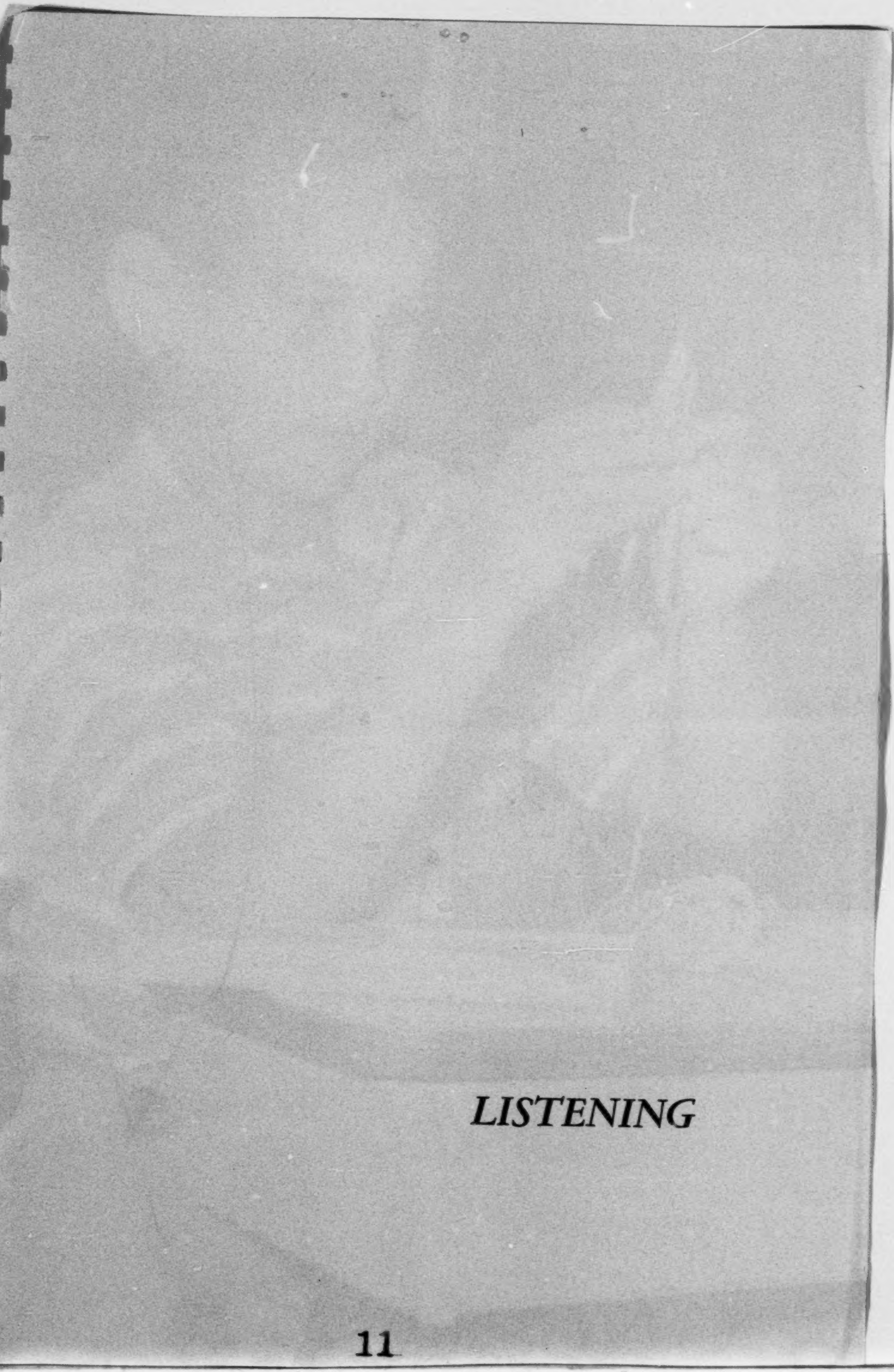
In order to evaluate successfully, whether one be teacher or child, one needs to see the goal and purposes of the learner and to be able to change one's mind when the data warrant such change. Fortunately, there are many opportunities for constructive appraisal during the classroom day and school year.

10. There is need for adequate diagnostic testing programs both formal and informal within the classroom as well as within the school or school system. Of as great significance for teaching procedure and pupil growth is the keeping of cumulative records and other pertinent information, such as pupil competencies, limitations, and interests.

Conclusion

Man cannot write writing, read reading, speak speaking, nor listen to listening. Ideas and emotions are the content, the body, the essence of what is conveyed by writing and speaking, or through listening and reading. The latter four processes are only the vehicles. Few will disagree that the thought and the intention are of greater significance than the well-turned phrase that is merely a tinkling cymbal. Yet *how* ideas are expressed to some extent affects the reader or the listener. This two-fold aspect of the idea and its verbal expression is the crux of the English language communication program in schools.

The major issue to be kept in the foreground is the greater significance of the idea, emotion, and feeling, and the lesser significance of the verbal form. For this reason the materials contained in this guide emphasize attitudes, social behavior, and content of ideas. Both ideas and their expressions in words are important, but mere form without content is pretense. It is possible, unfortunately, for language to be as unimaginative and uninspired as it is grammatically correct. Therefore, teachers must value and emphasize the development of thought and honest expression of feelings with as much attention and consistency in their teaching as they devote to the mechanics of verbal expression.



LISTENING

Learning to Listen and Listening to Learn

People are called upon constantly to make intelligent decisions. These decisions require accurate information carefully evaluated for its implications. Children need educational opportunities for this, and they should be provided at all levels of instruction. Learning conditions and techniques which help children to develop their listening abilities should be the concern, therefore, of every classroom teacher.

The term listening, as used in this bulletin, is not to be confused with hearing. Listening involves giving active and conscious attention to sounds of auditory expression for the purpose of gaining some meaning from it. When a child really listens he may be expected to make some reaction to the sounds. If he merely hears the sounds, no overt reaction may take place. Teachers should help children listen to particular sounds for particular purposes.

Listening and reading are commonly referred to as the receptive phases of language. While this generalization is true, neither listening nor reading is to be regarded as a passive activity. Whether the child is reading or listening, he is actively engaging in the perception and comprehension of ideas and facts. He is consciously or emotionally reacting to them and relating what he reads or hears to his experiential background. He may be formulating a response or deciding on a course of action.

Although both reading and listening are receptive phases of language, the listening process has several complicating characteristics. In reading, the reader proceeds at his own rate; he may reread the material as many times as he needs to get the main points. Moreover, ideas that appear in print are more likely to be expressed in a clear-cut, well organized manner. If they are not, the reader has both time and opportunity to search out the important thought. In listening, however, the rate is determined by the speaker. The ideas usually are presented but once, and the listener perceives them then or not at all. He has little time for reflection as the speaker proceeds. In addition, the listener's evaluation of what is said often is influenced by the speaker's use of gestures, facial expression, voice inflection, or mannerisms.

Research clearly indicates that if children are to learn to listen effectively, they must have carefully planned instruction. This does not mean that an additional course in listening should be included, but rather that the listening skills should be taught as an integral part of the curriculum. The show-and-tell time, school assembly programs, educational radio and TV programs, oral reports, dramatization, recordings and transcriptions, musical programs, sound films, announcements, and discussion groups provide opportunities for developing good listeners.

Objectives of Listening

1. To develop the ability to listen *appreciatively* by showing courtesy to the speaker; by deriving enjoyment from listening to speakers, music, drama, and sounds of nature.
2. To develop the ability to listen *carefully* and *thoughtfully* in order to follow directions, find answers to questions, grasp main ideas, obtain accurate information, and gain new ideas and interests.
3. To develop the ability to listen *critically* in order to evaluate information and ideas on the basis of authenticity, quality, and purpose; to draw conclusions; to recognize bias.

Activities for Developing More Effective Listening

1. Listening to stories, oral reports, educational films, and school assembly programs.
2. Listening to radio, recordings, and transcriptions, educational TV and films for enjoyment, enrichment, and appreciation.
3. Listening to directions.
4. Listening to instructions, explanations, or announcements. Examples include the use of library tools, procedure in science experiments, and the rules of a game.
5. Listening to small group discussions in order to report the main decisions to other members of the class.

Mass Media of Communication in Listening

The complete impact of mass media of communication upon the lives of children is still unknown. It is generally agreed that motion pictures, radio, and television may have beneficial or harmful effects. Their utility to education depends primarily on how wisely they are used. When proper guidance in the selection of programs and materials is given, these mass media can be a tremendous asset in the education of children. Through the use of the various instruments of mass communication children are exposed to new ideas, different points of view, facts, news, and propaganda. These instruments may also be used to promote discussion, develop the ability to evaluate materials presented, stimulate interests in any of a wide range of topics, and motivate reading to gain additional information or pleasure.

The use of television as an instrument in teaching is increasing rapidly and today reaches into many classrooms throughout the nation. The effectiveness of television as a medium of instruction depends upon such factors as the quality of the materials presented and the skill in getting the lesson on the air. Skill in the follow-up activities binds the TV teaching and classroom teaching together for pupil-learning experiences that are better than can be provided by either alone.

Whether television programs are developed with the educational staff for closed-circuit use or result from the coordination between a school system and a broadcasting station, their value will depend, to a large degree, on how effectively pupils are taught to listen. The objectives are the same as those indicated earlier for instruction in listening.

Suggestions for developing more effective listening through the use of mass media:

1. Encourage pupils to listen to radio and television programs; for example: news commentators, political speakers, and commercials.
    a. Help pupils to differentiate between facts and propaganda by checking for inaccuracies; judging the value of the speaker's material; analyzing the material—its organization, purpose, reasoning, and conclusions.
    b. Help pupils to recognize tricks and devices which may be used to influence the listener.

2. Assist pupils in better use of television and radio by alerting them to forthcoming programs devoted to education, music, art, travel, news, and public welfare.

3. Follow-up such programs with discussion to reinforce the main points or to take the pupils beyond what was presented.

Evaluation

Evaluation involves determining how well the pupil actually uses the listening skills in each situation which requires listening. In discussion, for example, does he wait until the speaker has finished before making contributions? Is he becoming increasingly able to distinguish the irrelevant comments from the relevant and the major points from the minor ones? Does he, as a member of the discussion group, exert some influence to adhere to the topic and to reach some conclusions? In conveying a message does he accurately report the main ideas? In carrying out directions does he follow the proper sequence indicated in the instruction? In listening to television and radio programs is he becoming increasingly discriminating in a variety of ways? In general, is he becoming adept in adjusting his listening to his purposes for listening?

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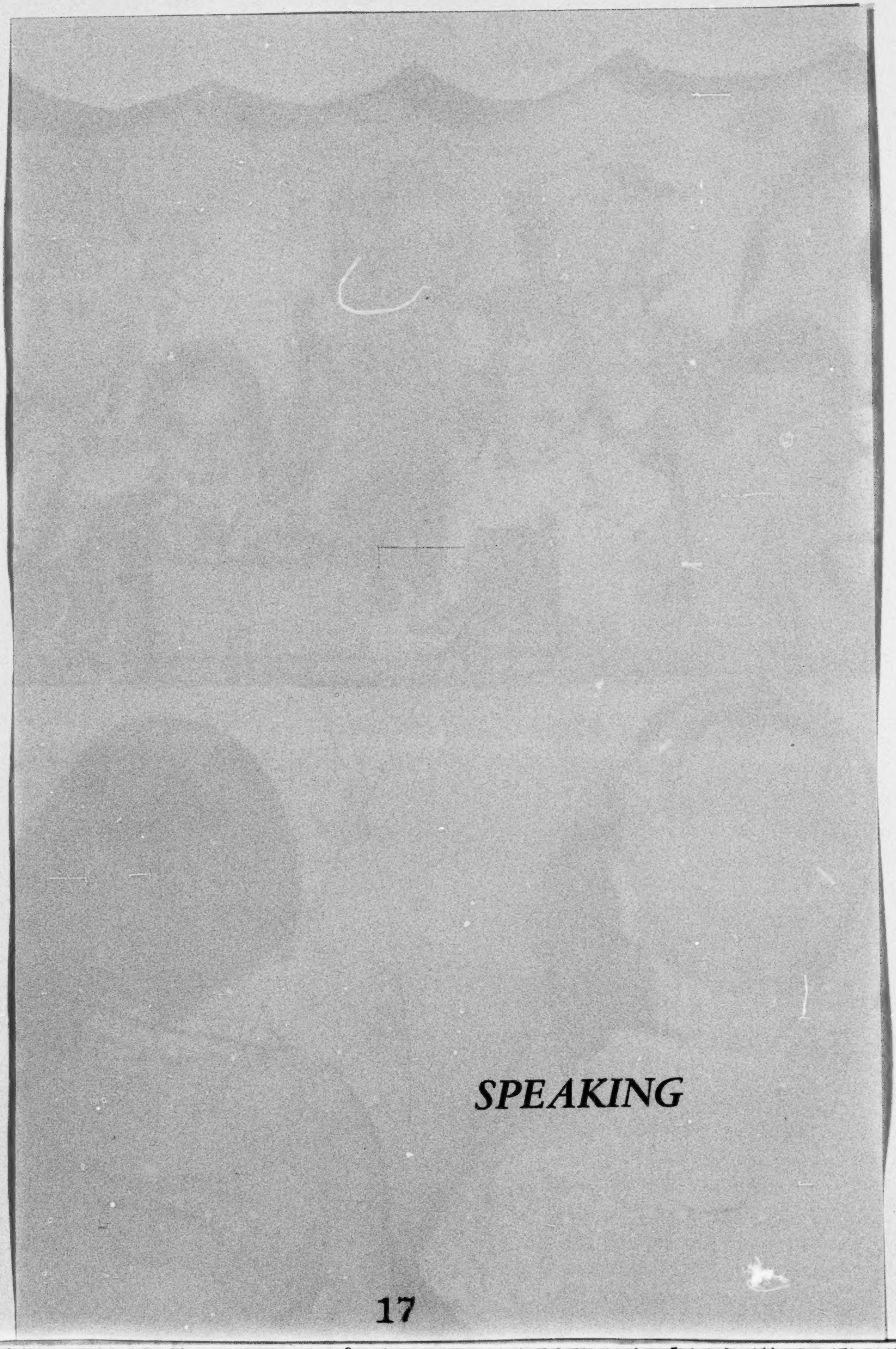

SPEAKING

INTRODUCTION

In the elementary grades the child's experiences with language are rooted in oral rather than written communication. He comes to his first classroom with many of his oral language skills partially developed. Having learned to use many words correctly already, to use acceptable word order in most of his sentences, and to recognize the distinctions of many word values, he may be regarded as an advanced pupil. Oral language has been to him, among other things, a tool, a source of pleasure, and an outlet for his emotions. With a measure of effectiveness he can express himself; he can communicate. Providing opportunities for the extension and enrichment of these powers and skills constitutes one of the major responsibilities of the elementary school.

During the past decade an increasing amount of attention has been given to the spoken word. This has been attributable to the advances made in the development and use of such media as radio and television. Related to these mass media are the multi-purposed "speaking devices" including the telephone and voice recorders. It may be anticipated that in the decade ahead the human voice will be used in numerous kinds of spoken messages, many of which now are more commonly taking the form of written communications.

With increased emphasis on oral communication the elementary school program must include both varied and meaningful experiences in speaking. The gradual improvement of voice quality among children will be an objective of prime importance in the area of oral communication. At all grade levels teachers should strive to set proper examples in voice usage and help children work toward desirable attainments of their own. Essential in oral communication are a well-modulated voice, clearness of speech (referring to enunciation and pronunciation), and the appropriate use of a visual symbol system (referring to gestures, colors, and clothing).

The succeeding sections of this guide are designed to provide the teacher in the elementary classroom with material to use in designing a program in the functional use of oral language—a program which can be adapted and reshaped at discretion to serve individual needs and differences. The section titles suggest the great flexibility, as well as the interest-development possibilities in oral language activities: storytelling, oral reporting, discussion and conversation, interviewing and telephoning, choral speaking and creative dramatics.

STORYTELLING
To And By Children

Through stories children are drawn into a world of beauty, imagination, and action with which they identify. The enrichment of children's background experience and vocabulary, to a large extent, is brought about as they relive the experiences of others.

If the art of storytelling is to survive, it must be developed to an even greater degree than is being done today in many of our schools. Numerous fine books and radio and television programs necessarily limit the time available for children to hear or tell stories. However, there are several television programs that are devoted to telling stories to children.

Objectives

The objectives of storytelling are similar to those in other forms of oral expression. Storytelling should enrich children's vocabularies through usage, assist pupils in ease of creative expression, help them to appreciate simple experiences, and enable them to enjoy creating interesting stories.

Some of the abilities to be developed in children as storytellers are:

1. To distinguish between make-believe and true-to-life stories.
2. To recall events in sequence.
3. To use descriptive words and phrases.
4. To use appropriate gestures to add interest and audience appeal.
5. To speak with ease and without undue self-consciousness.
6. To speak audibly and distinctly.

Suggested Teaching Procedures

Creating a stimulating atmosphere is an important step in encouraging pupils to relate their experiences. Each child should be permitted to select his topic from his experience rather than to be assigned a subject or story. There appears to be little value in telling a story which is familiar to the majority of the class, unless it is a particular favorite of the group, because a receptive and interested audience is essential to the success of the storyteller.

Storytelling should be as informal as possible. A child tells his story because he is enthusiastic about it and wishes to share it with others.

In the kindergarten most of the storytelling is done by the teacher as preparation for stories to be told by children. Stories told by pupils usually are concerned with personal experiences, fantasy, and parts of stories they remember.

In the beginning children usually tell stories in small groups so that they are less self-conscious, but eventually the entire class makes up the audience.

Pupils in the intermediate grades also tell original stories, anecdotes, and jokes. The size of the audience may be increased by having pupils tell stories to other class groups.

Some suggestions for storytellers follow:

1. Know your story and the sequence of events.
2. Picture the story to yourself.
3. Know and try to transmit the mood of the story to your audience from the very beginning.
4. Tell the story in your own words; avoid memorization.
5. Use only natural gestures that add interest to the story.
6. Use voice intonations to communicate various moods and emotions.
7. Speak distinctly and conversationally.
8. Look directly at your audience.
9. Work for a pleasing voice quality.

Suggested Activities

1. Take pupils to the library for a storytelling hour.
2. Make use of puppets and the flannel board.
3. Have pupils compose the ending for an unfinished story.
4. Have pupils change the ending of a story found in their reader, in a library book, or in a teacher-read story.
5. Dramatize a story, using the written script, or create an original characterization or story.
6. Several days before the story is told to the class, illustrations, giving the background and setting, can be shared.

Evaluation

Standards of performance should be realistic and formulated as a result of discussion with the pupils. Standards should not be so exacting as to mar the pleasure of the occasion. They should serve only as reminders to the storyteller. Group evaluation is most effective when it takes place in a sincere, friendly, and helpful manner.

1. Did the storyteller interest his audience from the beginning?
2. Did the storyteller give evidence of enjoying the story himself?
3. Did his voice change with events in the story?
4. Did the events in the story follow a logical sequence?
5. Did the story end in a satisfying way?

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ORAL REPORTING

A child's ability to report factual material orally varies according to his past experiences. It is the teacher's responsibility to guide each child from one situation to another in order to enable him to progress. There is no standard that all children can be expected to reach; therefore, it is unwise to attempt to catalogue certain skills in certain grades as far as oral reporting is concerned. The proper time to teach a definite skill is the period when the child can learn it regardless of the grade level.

Objectives

1. To develop an awareness of the necessity for accuracy in oral reporting.
2. To provide situations in which children may address an audience.
3. To incorporate the effective use of visual aids in oral reporting.
4. To make children conscious of the importance of sequence in accurate reporting.

Sequence

The sequence of development in oral reporting by the child begins with his ability to respond to simple questions by stating his name and giving other simple information. This continues with the gradual development of his ability to express himself in complete sentences, to speak clearly and distinctly, and use appropriate language.

A five-year-old child usually talks freely about those things which are familiar, such as his family, pets, and toys. Kindergarten and first-grade teachers encourage young pupils to bring a favorite or new object from home to help bridge the gap between home and school.

The elementary school child should be encouraged to state certain events in the order of their occurrence. He needs opportunities to learn to relate information to the class with confidence and poise. Skillful planning by the teacher insures a series of such profitable experiences for the child. Among the ideas a teacher needs to remember are these: provide children with opportunities to speak; encourage them to be thoughtful of others; to ask honest questions; and to add thought-provoking information to the bare details or mere identification of an object by a child.

Answering questions and stating factual data need to be done in a clear and concise manner. Coming to the point quickly, distinguishing the important from the unimportant, and selecting information that is of interest to the audience are additional qualities of oral reporting.

Children in the intermediate grades learn to organize their ideas and presentations in outline form. Detailed outlining may be stressed in the junior high school, but pupils in intermediate grades are able to list several main topics and subtopics.

Activities

Telling the class about some book, toy, hobby, experiment, or special project by:

Making reports with the aid of a flannel board,
Using pictures in relating experiences,
Checking accuracy in sequence by means of a tape recorder, or
Presenting outlines of projected field trips or special activities.

Evaluation

1. Are the pupils increasingly able to discriminate between the significant and insignificant information to be included in the report?
2. Do the children have a feeling for accuracy in presenting details of a situation?
3. Have the children developed the habit of observing sequence in reports?
4. Are they able to address an audience with reasonable ease and confidence?
5. Is there evidence of ability to incorporate the use of visual aids in oral reporting?

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DISCUSSION AND CONVERSATION

Discussion is a vital part of each day's living. It assumes a key position in school and maintains a prominent place in adult activities as well. In solving real problems, making decisions, and reaching conclusions, children gain valuable experience, not only in communication but in thinking through the problems of daily living.

Discussion differs from most conversation in that it has a purposeful goal. At the primary level the goal at first may be less apparent to the children than to the teacher. At the intermediate level the goal of discussion is a measure of agreement among the discussants; in most cases it concerns a situation requiring action. As children progress through the grades they should be helped to develop their ability to assume more responsibility for determining specific goals for discussion, for adhering to the subject selected, and for evolving workable solutions. Teachers need to provide the climate for guided experiences in discussion.

Objectives of Discussion

1. To help children recognize the need for discussion.
2. To assist pupils in developing the ability to define problems.
3. To lead the shy child into active oral participation in discussion.
4. To aid pupils in distinguishing between facts and opinions.
5. To teach pupils to seek valid conclusions.
6. To develop respect for the opinions of others.

Sequence

In the kindergarten and primary grades conversation frequently centers upon home, school, and family. The teacher should create an atmosphere which makes it natural and essential for children to *discuss* matters of mutual concern about these familiar situations. The teacher also needs:

1. To foster freedom and spontaneity of speech.
2. To use criticism constructively.
3. To encourage the use of new words appropriately.
4. To use questions to encourage participation.

In the intermediate grades children are helped to utilize discussion as a link between personal and vicarious experiences. For purposes of organizing and for correcting impressions and oversights, group discussion is invaluable. The teacher should:

1. Introduce materials from vicarious sources.
2. Stimulate interest in events that are remote in time and place.
3. Build the pupil's confidence in his own thinking.
4. Aim toward more deliberate thinking as a group.

Activities

1. Planning an excursion, party, program.
2. Examining the need for and evolving safety rules in school.
3. Developing views on helping at home.
4. Discussing experiences in stores, parks, clubs.
5. Solving a problem in human relations.
6. Analyzing our customs in relation to those of a country being studied.
7. Forming a constitution for school government.
8. Selecting criteria for recommending new books.
9. Assembling and organizing information on hobbies, animal care, etc.

Evaluation of Discussion

1. Was the problem stated clearly?
2. Were varied opinions expressed and considered?
3. Did discussants keep their remarks focused on the problem?
4. Was there unnecessary repetition?
5. Were the elements of appropriate speech observed?
6. Were the participants courteous and interested?
7. Did most members of the group participate?
8. Were the goals of the discussion attained?
9. To what extent was a measure of agreement reached?

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INTERVIEWING

A special form of conversation is the interview. Pupils who have a genuine reason to request information relative to some school activity soon discover the practical values of clear, pleasing speech adapted to the individual interviewed.

Effective interviewing depends upon the child's ability to observe the following points:

1. He must understand completely the *purpose* of the interview.
2. He must be an attentive listener as well as a talker.
3. He must be spontaneous, yet be guided by the principles of courtesy.
4. He must pre-plan for the actual interview in order to obtain all the information being sought from the person to be interviewed.
5. He must follow a definite pattern during the interview.

A Suggested Interview Pattern

1. Introduce yourself.
2. Explain the purpose for requesting the interview and how the person you are interviewing can help you.
3. State how you plan to use the information.
4. Discuss the questions you have prepared in advance of the interview.
5. Take notes if appropriate.
6. Be an alert listener and observer.
7. Summarize the information you have received as you conclude your interview to ascertain if you have interpreted the remarks made by the person interviewed correctly.
8. Do not utilize more time than necessary.
9. Express appreciation for the information and help received.

Activities

1. Have the child write a paragraph explaining the purpose of his interview. When this is clear, he will then see the need for preparing himself by learning all he can in advance about the subject he wants to explore with someone else.
2. In pre-planning for the interview suggest that the child make a list of specific questions to elicit the information being sought.
3. Have members of the class discuss final arrangements for the actual interview. A few basic points to remember follow:
   Selection of person who can give the needed information.
   Schedule an appointment.
   State the reason for your appointment.

   Dress appropriately.
   Be prompt and well-mannered.

4. Use the classroom as a laboratory with the teacher organizing teams to practice their interviews while the rest of the class observes with the idea of offering suggestions for improvement later.
5. Dramatize the *how to* and perhaps *how not to* conduct an interview.

Evaluation

1. Did the interviewer gain the information desired?
2. Did the individuals concerned part amicably with a measure of mutual satisfaction?

TELEPHONING

Another special form of conversation is the telephone call. The importance of the telephone as a means of communication is stated concisely in the following quotation:

> More than forty-four million telephones form a voice highway over the entire nation. This fact indicates that the telephone is a very important medium of communication in which the school and home have a responsibility for developing habits of courtesy, for considering the rights of others by limiting conversations and by calling at appropriate times, for providing practice in using the telephone in case of emergencies such as calling the police, the fire department, or the ambulance, or in making long distance calls.[1]

The effective usefulness of this media warrants the expenditure of class time devoted to instruction in its use. Such teaching will be most effective if many or most of the telephone calls are engaged in for real purposes that are apparent to the pupils, and if the pupils and the teacher cooperatively set up the criteria for judging the calls.

Objectives

The objectives of instruction in telephoning are directly related to the main purposes for using the phone efficiently and courteously.

Activities

Children in the elementary school need to make and answer both social and business calls for reasons which include these:

1. To inquire about the health or well-being of a friend or classmate.
2. To request permission.
3. To acknowledge receipt of or to order gifts, material, or supplies.
4. To extend, accept, or to refuse invitations.
5. To express appreciation for or to offer assistance.

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[1] The Commission on the English Curriculum, National Council of Teachers of English, *Language Arts for Today's Children*, p. 378. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1954.

6. To request information or the source for securing it.
7. To report an accident, fire, or loss.

As a courtesy the Telephone Company, upon request by a teacher, will distribute telephones for classroom use. These instruments are useful in enabling two pupils to engage in a planned conversation (for one of the above seven reasons) within the hearing of the entire class. When such calls are pre-planned and evaluated by the entire class they can be of real educational value and facilitate the success of the actual call when made.

Eight Problems Most Children Encounter in Telephoning

1. What to say first when answering or making a call.
2. How to dial and to listen for the dial tone before dialing.
3. How to ascertain the correct number has been reached or how to apologize for incorrect dialing.
4. What time limits are to be observed.
5. How to take a message.
6. What kinds of conversations are appropriate.
7. What are general telephone manners.
8. Who should terminate a call.

The following three-fold advice from the Telephone Company is aptly phrased and attractively illustrated in their free booklets.

1. When receiving a call:

   Answer promptly.
   Identify yourself.
   Remember to speak distinctly.
   Be friendly.
   Keep your promises.
   Let the caller hang up first.

2. When answering calls for others:

   Emphasize the names.
   Be helpful.
   Be tactful.
   Keep paper and pencil handy.
   Deliver the message.

3. When making a call:

   Be sure of the number.
   Allow time for answering (at least a minute).
   If there is a busy signal wait at least several minutes before calling again.
   Ask if it's convenient to talk.
   Try to visualize the person.
   Share a party line.
   Terminate the call and replace the telephone receiver gently.

Content

The content of a telephone call made for a specific purpose should be given consideration by the caller prior to, during, and after the call is made. Children need the help of the teacher and classmates in discussing and considering each of these five points:

1. Formulating messages, inquiries, orders and other detailed information as concisely as possible before making a call.
2. Identifying the speaker clearly and courteously when making or receiving a call.
3. Explaining clearly and courteously the purpose of a call that is made.
4. Speaking courteously and graciously as if one were speaking to the person face to face.
5. Being brief and to the point.
6. Allowing the caller to close the conversation.[1]

Special Abilities

In the foregoing material the possession of several special abilities by children are assumed. The classroom teacher of primary children will be quick to realize that pupils will need help in alphabetizing to find names in the telephone directory. They will also need to learn how to dial correctly and to recognize the meaning of the various dial tones. Middle grade children and some primary children will profit from instruction in the uses of the Yellow Pages of the Telephone Directory and in making emergency calls quickly and correctly.

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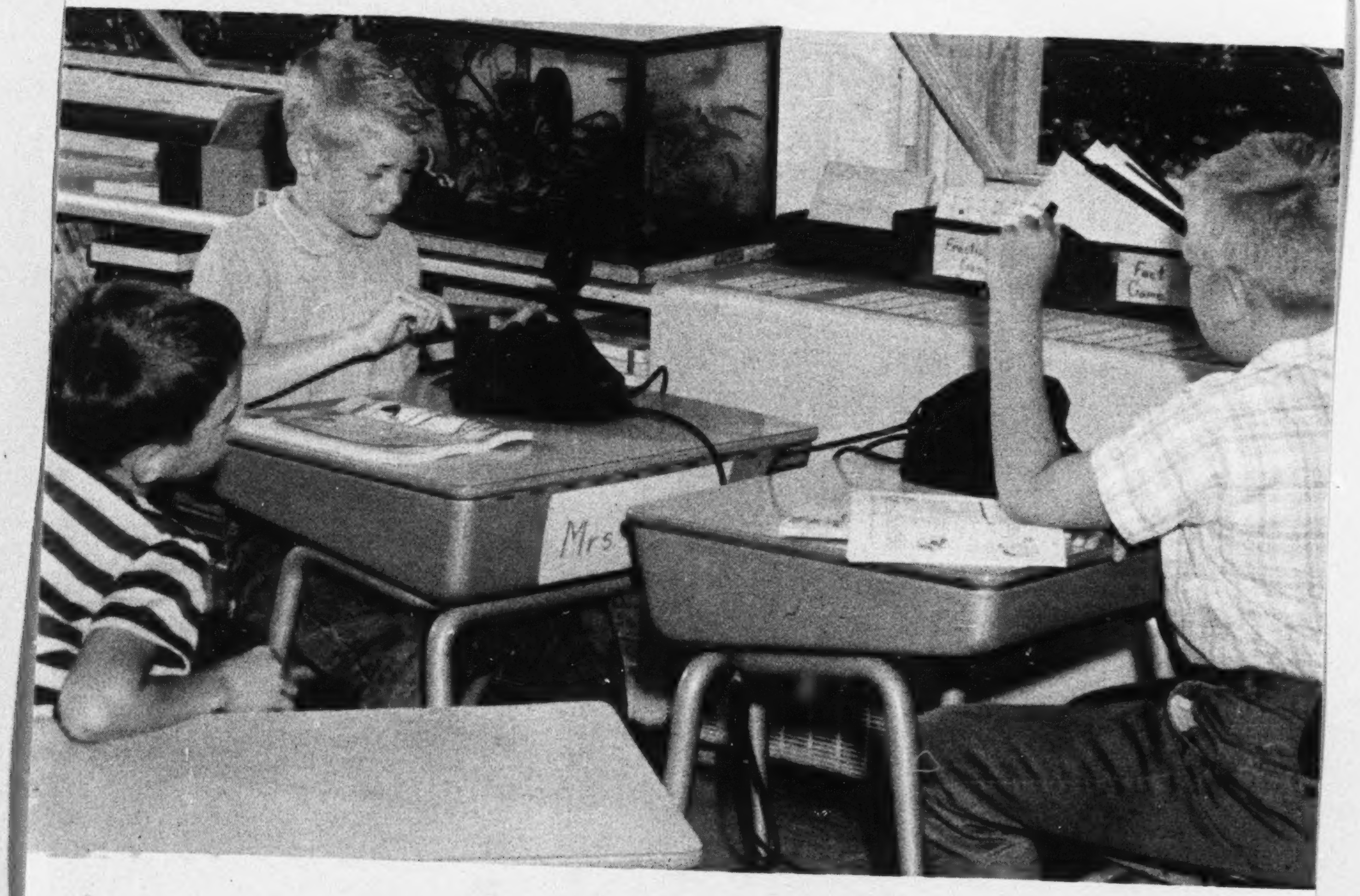
[1] Adapted from Greene, Harry A. and Petty, Walter T., *Developing Language Skills*, p. 88. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1959.

Voice placement, language usage, and distinctness of speech are additional special abilities involved in making calls pleasant and purposeful for those concerned and require teaching assistance from parents and teachers.

Evaluation

Pupil participation in evaluating telephone usage is particularly helpful in effecting improvements in each of the aspects mentioned above. Among the more important criteria to be seriously considered in evaluating any telephone conversation are these:

1. Was the purpose of the call achieved to the satisfaction of both persons?
2. Was identification of caller made early in the call?
3. Was the conversation courteous and gracious?
4. Was the message formulated and given clearly and with brevity?
5. Was the conversation ended graciously and promptly?



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CHORAL SPEAKING

The primary purpose of choral speaking is to provide children with an enjoyable and profitable experience in speaking and reading aloud together.

Choral speaking is an old art. Associated with many early forms of artistic expression, it was used in the festival and religious rites of primitive peoples. It is an amplification of an individual interpretation of a poem or prose selection, and it may include solo as well as ensemble or simultaneous speaking. It is a communal activity, but many of its values are individual. For the elementary school child, the desired result is not a polished performance but enjoyment.

Choral speaking often is limited by the fact that many teachers look upon it only as a unison activity. There are however, several other arrangements worth considering. Examples are:

Line-a-child. Each line of a selection is spoken by a different child.

Antiphonal. Groups composed of heavy and light voices speak to each other.

Cumulative. Several small groups add their voices to the original group by joining in on cue.

Refrain speaking. An individual or small group tells the story while class members repeat the refrain.

Part speaking. Several small groups prepare a selection in which each group is responsible for certain portions.

Objectives

The objectives of choral speaking are generally those of other forms of speech but in addition it attempts:

1. To provide children with the opportunity to enjoy both prose and poetry in a new way.
2. To develop in children an awareness of the elements necessary to appropriate oral interpretation of written work such as rhyme, rhythm, pauses, sentence structure, cadence, grammar, and logic.
3. To develop an increased interest in words.
4. To develop expressive speech.

Sequence

Primary children are introduced to choral speaking by listening to poetry or prose read by the parent or teacher and by unison singing or speaking of familiar rhymes and refrains. Beginners learn to keep their voices soft and light and to feel a simple and definite rhythm pattern, providing the teacher keeps these goals in mind.

In the intermediate grades, pupils are able to accept more responsibility in reading a selection to reveal the varied possibilities of interpretation. At this level, a variety of arrangements should be used. The choice of arrangement will depend upon the experience and abilities of the group, the selection being used, and the ideas and emotions the children actually have.

Types of Material

Rhymes and jingles offer a pleasant and easy way to begin choral speaking. Young children have little difficulty with rhymes or jingles with which they are familiar. Nonsense verse is particularly adapted to choral speaking because humor has a special appeal for children. Material which expresses mature emotions and attitudes usually should be avoided.

Evaluation

Evaluation in choral speaking is done by ascertaining individual and group progress in speaking, vocabulary usage, reading for meaning and interpretation, and particularly, in the enjoyment derived.

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CREATIVE DRAMATICS

Creative dramatics has become a vital and integral part of the curriculum and is a frequently used means of creative expression. Creative dramatics is informal playmaking which grows spontaneously from a simple plot into a living experience through dramatization.[1] It is a comprehensive term which includes role playing, dramatic play, dramatization, and pantomiming.

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[1] B. M. McIntyre, "Creative Dramatics", *Education*, LXXIX (April, 1959), 495.

The very young child engages extensively in informal dramatics such as play acting and role playing in which he identifies himself closely with the characters he portrays. Such dramatic play is completely spontaneous and unrehearsed and may be the outgrowth of any number of situations. Older children, however, usually are found to be increasingly self-conscious and tend to select formal creative dramatics. This is a more structured type of presentation with a definite plot to be unfolded in a prescribed sequence of events.

Creative dramatics is fostered in situations where teachers work continuously to encourage and inspire creativity. Opportunities abound in field trips which stimulate new ideas, feelings, and situations.

Classroom organization that enables pupils to do creative work in small groups develops feelings of trust and understanding among pupils.

Because creative dramatics is an outgrowth of children's interests and activities, scenery and props are of minor importance. Creative dramatics is not confined to a time schedule but is utilized in any area of the curriculum where it may be used effectively for the sake of pupils' social and emotional development.

Objectives

1. To develop further self-understanding.
2. To encourage the use of imagination for creating illusions.
3. To develop self-expression.
4. To develop self-evaluation.

Sequence of Development

Kindergarten and Primary Grades

1. To engage freely in playmaking involving familiar activities, such as playing house, school, store, doctor, etc.
2. To identify one's self in role playing with various people and in many situations.
3. To express one's self freely by pantomiming simple movements of people, animals, or objects.
4. To dramatize familiar stories or actions through shadow plays and simple puppets of the paper bag and fist type.
5. To enjoy interpreting various forms of literature, such as rhymes, poems, and stories.
6. To identify with characters in a story situation and enter sympathetically and realistically into the characterization in an unrehearsed and spontaneous manner.

Intermediate Grades

1. To maintain an enjoyment of an appreciation for creative dramatics developed in earlier grades.
2. To progress in the ability to express a feeling, message, or story through the use of pantomime.
3. To make and present a story through the use of string puppets, flannel board, or other media.
4. To enjoy interpreting various forms of literature, such as stories, poetry, and original works in an increasingly mature manner.
5. To organize stories, both adapted and original, for dramatic expression.

Suggested Activities

1. Playing various familiar characters, such as the mother, father, doctor, nurse, farmer, grocer, mailman, policeman, teacher.
2. Playing various familiar situations; such as house, school, current happenings, principles of courtesy, safety rules, etc.

3. Interpreting nursery rhymes, jingles, and music through puppets, pantomime, or dramatization.
4. Organizing stories and poems for dramatization.
5. Utilizing historical events for presentation.
6. Integrating social studies, literature, or science materials into an organized, culminating dramatic activity as the conclusion of a unit of study.

Evaluation

Appraisal of a child's growth through the use of creative dramatics is made by observing the extent to which a pupil

1. Increases in revealing personality through expressions of inner feelings of inadequacy, shyness, aggressiveness, etc.
2. Enters wholeheartedly into imaginative playmaking.
3. Increases in self-confidence in assuming roles of various characters.
4. Grows in ability to organize poems, stories, and other media for dramatic expression.

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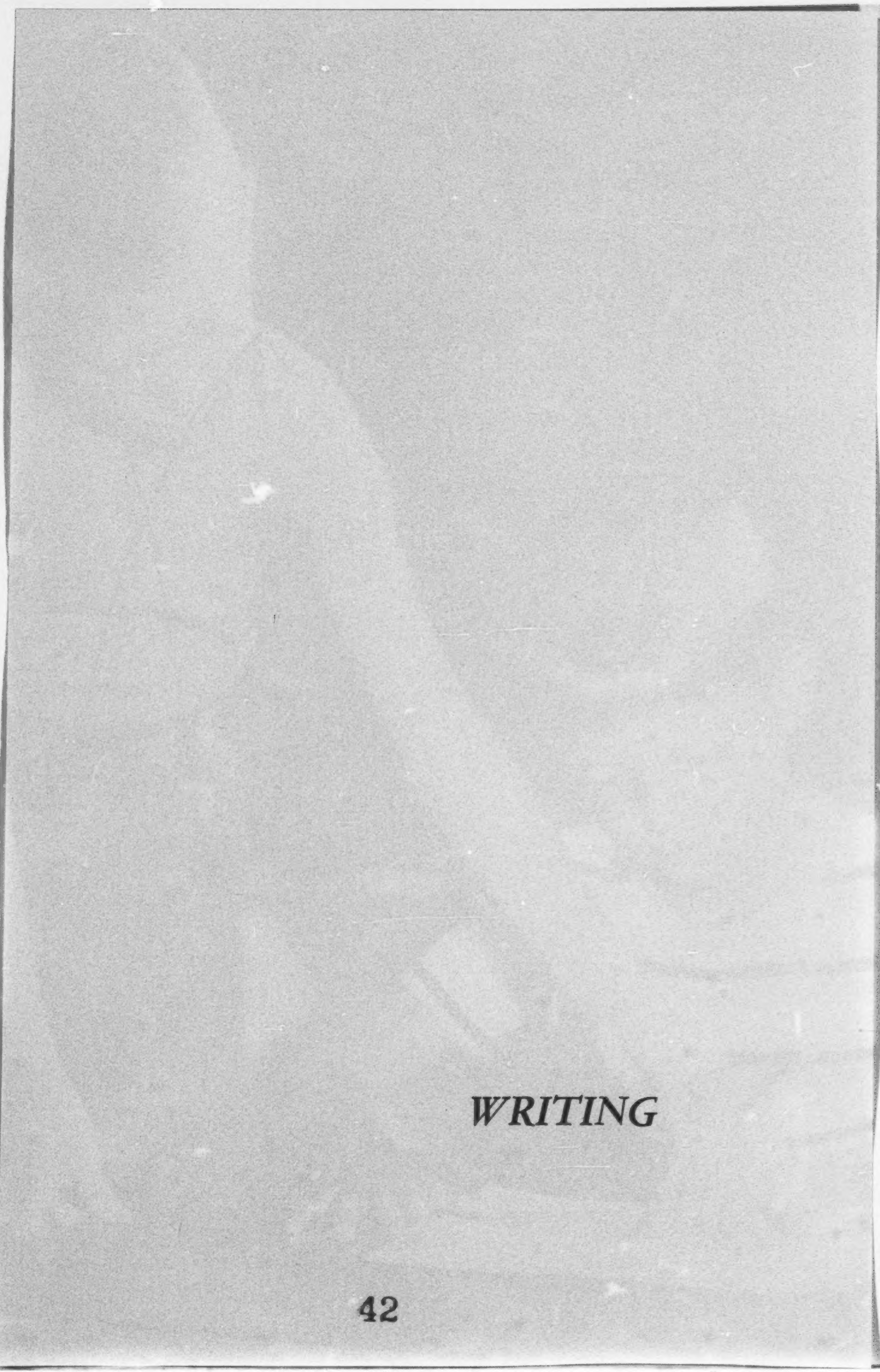

WRITING

INTRODUCTION

The relationship between oral and written communication is close, and the rich opportunities afforded for oral comunication in the lower grades offer a foundation for later work in written communication. Effectiveness in written language implies the ability on the part of the child to express his thoughts and ideas aptly and fluently in writing, with increasing proficiency in spelling, handwriting, and English usage as he progresses through the grades.

In past years the art of writing formal compositions about stereotyped, impersonal themes, completely unrelated to the interests and experiences of children, was stressed. The shift in emphasis today has been to a rich background of varied and meaningful experiences for the children so that pupils will be enabled to write with increasing facility. It is far more important for a teacher to develop an environment in which stimulating ideas and experiences abound which motivate pupils to engage in writing.

Experience may be gained from both real and vicarious sources, such as a unit of study in science or social studies, an art project, a field trip, a movie, a resource speaker, the first snow, or a child's birthday. If the funds in a school district are limited for audio-visual aids or field trips, the teacher should improvise ways of enriching the experiences of the pupils.

Formerly, written language was taught during a clearly specified segment of the day's program. Many teachers today utilize the various activities of the school day as a basis for needed written language. Work in all subjects provides purposes for purposeful writing, and children feel stimulated to write about subjects of actual interest to them, ones with which they feel familiar and comfortable. It is no longer considered good practice for an entire group of children to be assigned one topic. The individual child should be guided to choose a topic which concerns him and to write it in the form appropriate for the occasion and the subject matter.

In the sections immediately following, particular attention is directed to written communication—both practical and creative. In this guide the following distinction is made. Creative writing results when the child chooses the subject matter, the form, and the length of the written material. By contrast, when the teacher specifies these (subject matter, form, and length), practical writing is said to result.

PRACTICAL WRITING

This section presents a point of view and suggestions for helping children with practical or work-type writing as contrasted with creative writing. Practical writing is concerned with the type of writing children need to do in connection with assignments and preparation for regular class work. Some of the activities include outlining, letter writing, taking notes, making book reports, making topical reports, giving directions or explanations, and making records, charts, and indexes.

Along with these activities children should be encouraged to use a particular page format for all written papers. Format refers to the physical appearance of a paper and includes such items as margins, headings, indentations, signature, and simple bibliographical entry form. The current, locally approved school form provides the pattern for school papers while social usage dictates the form for letters and papers to be submitted elsewhere.

Most of the writing skills which concern teachers in the elementary school are functional in nature. The need for skills arises daily in connection with assignments and activities in all of the subject areas. Most children need help in the development of functional writing. This task is introduced in a simple way at an early age. The child improves and grows in understanding as opportunities for and experiences in practical writing are supplemented by the guidance of a skillful teacher.

The child who has learned to answer questions in complete sentences, who has had practice in orderly arrangement of ideas in storytelling, and who has been guided to pause when a thought is completed has a basis for effective writing upon which he can rely. From the very beginning the child can be aided to see the relationships among listening, speaking, reading, and writing. By thoughtful planning and discussion of particular problems, the teacher can help his pupils begin to master the simple rudiments of writing without burdening them with isolated rules that they usually fail to understand or apply.

Children find writing a dull process when writing consists of copying class notes or stories from the board. Individuality is discouraged; to them the need to say and communicate personal thinking is minimized. For those children who are ready and eager, something should be done which will enable them to write independently with some degree of success.

Objectives

To stimulate interest and enjoyment in writing.

To develop skills of effective written communication.

To develop abilities to evaluate writing.

Activities

Children can be taught to recognize in their everyday experiences the functional uses of writing. Planned activities are teacher-assigned responsibilities which involve thought content. The school program abounds in opportunities for practical writing. Examples for consideration in terms of sequential level of development moving from lower to upper grades are:

1. Letters.
2. Invitations in the name of the class.
3. Records of birds that come to feeding tray.
4. Summaries of what has been read.
5. Newspapers—class or school.
6. Current events.
7. Reports related to science unit.

Suggested topics for written expression may include:

1. My pet's tricks.
2. Trip to the post office.
3. Walk to the park.
4. Thank-you letter from the secretary of the group.
5. Diary written by an imaginary character studied in social studies.
6. History of a state or city.

Young children use brief, simple forms of written expression consisting of a sentence or two. Later, children write answers to questions. Guided dictation is also helpful in leading the child to independent writing. After a few lessons of this type children can be encouraged to try independent writing. They often do this on their own initiative if the chalk board, bulletin space, or paper is made available.

Letter Writing

One of the most widely used writing skills is that of letter writing—social and business. It is emphasized throughout the elementary school and is one of the first types of formal writing children experience. In every classroom numerous opportunities arise for writing notes and letters.

Written Reports

Written reports related to materials studied in a unit . . . sports events, club meetings, favorite TV programs, favorite books, and reactions to information learned on field trips develop skills needed.

Note Taking

Wide reading is shared through oral and written reports. These reports require note taking. It is not unusual to see children read magazines and books and take notes in preparation for sharing periods. With little or no direction, most children merely copy sentences, paragraphs, and even pages from the book. With some instruction in locating the main idea in a paragraph or section and with help in rewriting it briefly and simply, most children will avoid much futile copying. Note taking will become more helpful to the child in making his reports if he learns how to be selective of pertinent material and encloses quoted materials in quotation marks. The resulting reports will be more effective and interesting because of a more efficient use of the notes based upon the materials read.

Outlining

Skill in outlining is related to the content areas. Outlining is valuable in the preparation of oral and written reports and serves as the basis for study and recall of material read. The teaching of outlining ties in with note taking. The ability to locate major and minor ideas, and an understanding of sequence are necessary.

Proofreading

Guided proofreading is one of the best ways of pointing out those skills of mechanics and structure which the child should learn. Reading aloud to locate errors is particularly valuable in matters of clarity, sentence structure, and punctuation. The teacher, working with the child to ascertain the frequency of errors, may select a few of the outstanding ones and concentrate on these at a time.

The use of proofreading symbols agreed upon by the teacher and children also identifies types of corrections needed. Following is a list of those appropriate to use with young children:

1. H————error in heading.
2. M————error in width of margin.
3. / / /————capital letter needed.
4. No / / /———small letter needed.
5. Sp————error in spelling.
6. S-————incomplete sentence.
8. ¶————error in punctuation.
7. P————paragraph needed.
9. No————no paragraph needed.
9. No ¶————meaning not clear.
11. ∧————something left out.

This method eliminates the discouraging aspect of a paper covered with marks. Children can be divided into small groups for specific instruction. Such a procedure encourages the child to do something positive in terms of locating his own errors. This in itself provides a better teaching and learning situation, since it eliminates the meaningless recopying of written materials.

Evaluation

1. Do the children have a genuine interest and growing proficiency in expressing their ideas and feelings in writing?
2. Can intermediate grade children prepare a report independently without copying the material word for word from the resource materials?
3. Can most of the children write an interesting letter in socially acceptable form?
4. Are children increasing their ability to proofread and to discover many of their own errors in writing?

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CREATIVE WRITING

Creativity in writing is interpreted from different points of view. There are those who are concerned primarily with originality of thought. Others maintain that the ideas need not be new, but the expression and interpretation should be unique. Still others believe that creativity lies in the interpretation of one's own experiences through the medium of writing. This latter point of view implies a recognition of the worth of experience, a desire to share inner feelings and reactions, and a sensitivity to the need for expressing oneself in such a way that the experience is truly communicated through the medium of words.

A child writes creatively when he feels a need to put his personal thoughts and ideas into written words. In this sense the approach to creative writing is informal. The teacher's main task is to encourage the child's honest verbal expression of his ideas and feelings. Creative writing, according to this definition, cannot be assigned — only encouraged and facilitated by the provision of adequate time.

Children should be encouraged and aided to write in situations which emphasize the expression of thoughts and feelings. In these instances the child should be free to write in his own way and feel secure about the reception of his writing by the teacher. Emphasis on the communication of ideas and emotions takes precedence over mechanics and form. The teacher who is truly interested shares his enthusiasm with the children in many ways. The teaching situation, therefore, resolves itself into provision for time, for encouragement, and for assistance to individuals.

Objectives

Impression, reflection, and expression are all involved in the process of creative writing. Among the more important objectives are:

1. To create within each child the desire to express himself freely in writing in an original manner.
2. To assure the child that his ideas are worth recording.
3. To teach an awareness of the relationship of writing to other expressive activities such as painting and music.
4. To improve the ability of the child to record emotions and thoughts in writing.
5. To help the child to have an increasing alertness, awareness, and observation of what is around him.

The Development of Creative Writing in the Individual Pupil Results in the Following Sequential Pattern:

1. Sensitivity to occasions for writing.
2. Desire to write when there is a personal need.
3. Inclination to write for pleasure.
4. Tendency to put more and more of one's self into what is written.
5. Ability to get one's ideas on paper so that others will understand.
6. Ability to revise what has been written.
7. Recognition and appreciation of good writing.
8. Desire to improve and the belief that one can.

Some Ways A Teacher Fosters Creative Writing

First of all, a teacher needs to recognize that learning to put ideas on paper is a complex task and that a realistic goal should be set for each child. Desired improvement should be consistent with ability.

Creative writing is self-motivated. It is writing that is done because one feels the need to express oneself. Because for most people this is a learned procedure, something must be done by the teacher to lead the children to engage in this type of writing.

Through the daily classroom activities involving oral and recorded language, children can be helped to understand that people share their thinking and feeling by means of writing and thereby give pleasure to themselves as well as to others. This is done in many ways and in connection with numerous activities.

Children believe that they need something special about which to write. The classroom teacher helps to provide a stimulating background of experiences, encourages the sharing of these experiences, and helps children realize that how they feel, think, and write is important. In addition, the teacher helps by:

1. Providing an informal atmosphere in which children are encouraged to express their ideas, their feelings, and their dreams through the written word.
2. Providing children with time in which to write.
3. Being present, proffering help, yet not intruding if help is neither sought nor needed.
4. Recognizing and accepting the contribution of each child as worthy; evaluating it on its own merits; ever encouraging and guiding, but never pressuring.
5. Listening to and learning from children in the group; being sensitive to their ideas and alert to situations which tend to promote creative writing.
6. Being enthusiastic about colorful, apt language (descriptive words, appropriate phrases).

Activities That Stimulate Creative Writing

1. Making charts.
2. Observing nature, including people.

3. Looking at pictures.
4. Planning group story books.
5. Reading and writing poetry.
6. Preparing skits for dramatization.
7. Presenting parts of stories to be completed by pupils.
8. Telling tall tales.
9. Writing adventure stories from actual experiences.
10. Preparing a school newspaper.
11. Using films and filmstrips to enrich learning experiences.
12. Reacting to home and family.
13. Sharing experiences through group activity.
14. Going on excursions.

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Evaluation

A teacher can feel assured that a classroom climate has been established that fosters creative writing when a majority of the children engage in this activity; when they select appropriate topics and forms; when the content of the writing is important to the writer; when the pupils are mutually helpful in sharing some of their writing; and when there is obvious satisfaction found by the pupils as a result of their writing.

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PUPIL PUBLICATIONS

For adults, the newspaper serves as one of the most effective methods of mass communication. A class or school newspaper serves a similar purpose in a smaller but equally important world of childhood. At the present time the frequency of distribution of such school newspapers ranges from daily to yearly publications, but the effectiveness of the publication is limited only by the amount and quality of writing done within a classroom.

The goals of school newspapers are to inform, entertain, and instruct children through their own written efforts. The finished product should be an honest reproduction of their work. Under no circumstances should the teacher or school secretary alter or rewrite pupils' articles. Not all children are effective writers, nor have all pupils in a given classroom reached the same level of self-expression through the written word; but the pleasure of seeing their thoughts in print is important to them.

Pupil newspapers or magazines may be organized around a number of areas, but usually include stories, poems, articles of interest, sports, and comics.

If the typewritten or duplicated newspaper fails to fit a given classroom situation, other types may be equally effective. Variations include the wall newspaper where the individual child places his contribution under the appropriate heading on the bulletin board, and the single copy magazine or newspaper for which children copy their contributions on sheets of paper to be stapled together. The publication may be left at a reading table or in the school library for the children to read and enjoy in free time.

Objectives

1. To provide a natural motivation for writing to inform an audience about certain events.
2. To create a desire on the part of pupils to use accepted grammar, spelling, punctuation, and capitalization.
3. To improve pupils' writing ability.
4. To develop appreciation of the written efforts of others.
5. To provide a motivation for reading.
6. To encourage pupils to report events accurately.
7. To teach pupils to conduct interviews in a polite and efficient manner.

Activities

1. Write stories about happenings in the family, the school, and the neighborhood.
2. Utilize the subject areas to suggest material for the publication.
3. Write reports of actual field trips taken by the class, programs or parties enjoyed, Girl and Boy Scout news.
4. Conduct interviews with teachers, resource speakers, and pupils.
5. Write joke columns, reports of sports, games, and student council meetings.
6. Write reviews of current TV, radio, and movie programs.
7. Write book reviews.

Evaluation

1. Do children prepare written materials willingly for the newspaper?
2. Is improvement noted in language usage in articles, stories, poems, and reports that are submitted?
3. Is proofreading becoming increasingly effective?
4. Are pupils able to report accurately and avoid unwarranted digression?

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HANDWRITING (MANUSCRIPT AND CURSIVE)

The main purpose of teaching handwriting is to develop the child's ability to write legibly with ease and speed. Handwriting enables a person to record his ideas to be read. The teachers job is twofold: first, to supply motivation for written expression; and second, to assist children to achieve legibility, ease, and speed in recording ideas.

The young child is interested in learning to write. Handwriting has meaning for him from the very beginning. As he makes writing serve his purposes, he gradually acquires control of the necessary letter forms. This is a functional approach to handwriting by which the child learns writing in connection with its use rather than as an isolated skill.

Readiness for handwriting develops with experience and maturation, as does reading readiness. Muscular coordination is one important factor in writing readiness.

It is advantageous to use the same handwriting system throughout the school. If a basic handwriting system is adopted, the teacher should be thoroughly familiar with it and use the recommended forms in all written work.

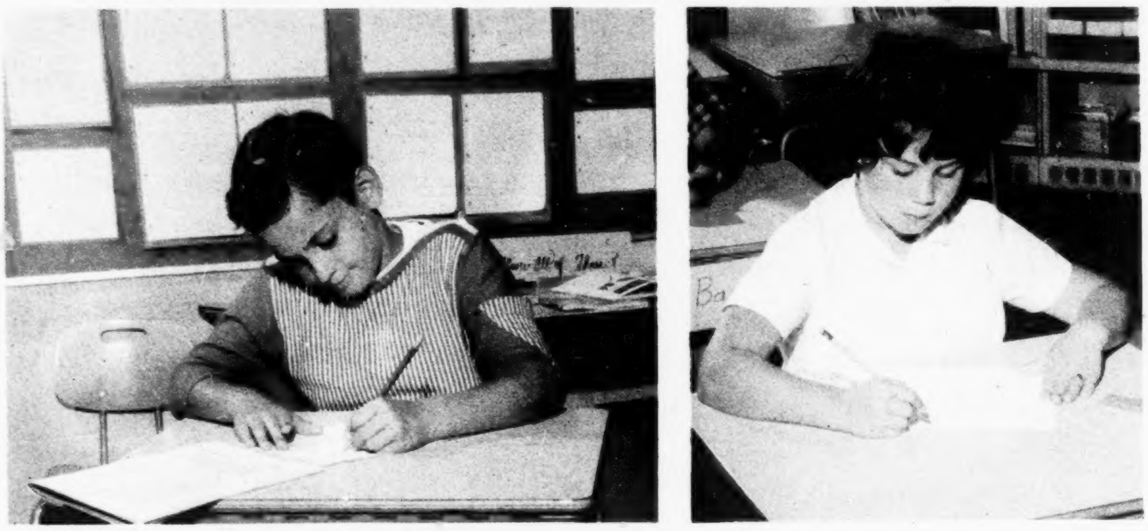
Manuscript writing refers to a system in which the letters are discrete, the movements are short, and the letter forms resemble print. The child who is first taught manuscript writing has been found to make more rapid progress in learning to write as evidenced by fewer and less random movements and by greater legibility. The reading process is facilitated because the letter forms in writing and in printing are similar.

Manuscript writing is recommended for the first and second grades. The transition to cursive writing usually is made at the end of the second or the beginning of the third grade. Cursive writing refers to a running and flowing type of writing by which the letters are formed with the strokes joined and the angles rounded. Both manuscript and cursive writing are taught during grades four, five, and six to establish and maintain accepted standards of speed and legibility.

Tools For Handwriting

A variety of instruments is used in teaching handwriting. The thick pencil with soft lead is favored for the beginner. The regular sized pencil, the ball point pen, and the fountain pen are increasingly difficult to use successfully.

White paper is generally recommended, but some schools use tinted paper in the lower grades. There is considerable variation in the spacing of lines; one-inch spacing is preferred in the first grade; one-half inch is common in the second and third grades. The adult three-eighths inch line is most frequently used after third grade. Lined newsprint is available for primary grades. Large soft white or yellow chalk is recommended for children for board work.



Left-Handedness

The writing habits to be developed by the left-handed child are no different from those by the right-handed child. Only the position of the paper is different.

Help given to the left-handed first grade child during his early weeks in school is especially important. If after repeated observations, the child prefers his left hand, the appropriate paper placement for left-handed writing should be provided, and correct habits of pencil holding should be initiated. The cooperation of the home should be enlisted by the teacher as early as possible.

Activities

Handwriting has value only as it is used in functional experiences in which the child sees a real purpose for reading the writing. The following are suggestions for handwriting:

1. Labels for identification on personal belongings.
2. Titles for original stories, library books, riddles, and rhymes.
3. Captions and signs for bulletin boards, posters, and slogans.

4. Records of notices, daily activities, and room news.
5. Notes and letters to parents or friends.
6. Numbers in arithmetic classes.
7. Original stories, plays, and poems.

Evaluation

Neatness and legibility should be apparent in written work for all classes, including arithmetic. Handwriting scales from many different sources are available to aid the teacher in estimating the degree to which standards of speed and legibility are being met. Teacher judgment and observation also are important in the evaluation of handwriting. Samples of children's work kept from the beginning of the year help teacher and pupil measure the degree of handwriting improvement achieved.

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SPELLING

The aim of teaching spelling is to enable boys and girls to spell correctly words which they need to write. Spelling should neither be thought of nor taught as an isolated subject in which pupils memorize the spelling of words in lists to be used later. Spelling is an integral part of every writing activity in which children engage. Separate drills and practice periods are of value only as they contribute to more accurate spelling in written expression.

Objectives

For the child's first writing activities, the following objectives should be kept in mind by the teacher:

1. To develop in each child an attitude of responsibility and a desire for accurate spelling.
2. To develop an awareness of certain basic words most frequently used in writing situations so that the child sees the value of memorizing them.
3. To develop means by which the individual pupil may identify his own spelling difficulties and work effectively to overcome them.

Methods of Teaching Spelling

In order to avoid loss of time in the teaching of spelling, teachers should not require able spellers to study and practice words they already know, nor permit poor spellers to spend much time in the study of words they seldom use. For each child, priority should be given to the words he needs in his own writing.

Some school systems have a well-planned spelling program, but do not use a basic spelling textbook. The teaching of spelling is based on individual pupil needs. Misspelled words are taken from the child's creative writing. Words that the child uses frequently but misspells become his spelling list which he keeps in his personal spelling notebook for mastery. Pupils are permitted or encouraged to work together in pairs on their individual word lists. The teacher may need to check the weekly final test on the child's personal list in order to better understand the pupil's spelling problems.

This method of teaching spelling stresses the importance of correct spelling in functional writing activities. It places the emphasis on individual needs rather than on the memorization of a given word list. Its success requires the teacher to encourage both functional and creative writing. (See sections of this guide on practical and creative writing.)

Another common method of teaching spelling is the use of a published spelling series supplemented by words misspelled in the previous week's written work and words likely to be used because they pertain to matters that are being studied currently. In the use of this method teachers should avoid overlooking pupils with words to be learned. This is particularly true in the case of a poor speller. If the test-study procedure is used, this will reduce the number of words to be studied by some of the pupils and provide an opportunity for these pupils to use this time working on other activities. Using the printed speller alone, places heavy emphasis on studying words which the pupil does not currently need to spell in either functional or creative writing and which may be unrelated to the content of his other school subjects.

Spelling Readiness

Readiness for spelling depends on several factors, such as physical conditions (hearing and general health), maturity sufficient for the child to discriminate among words both seen and heard, the back-ground of general experience and language experience, and the individual's meaning vocabulary, as well as on his interest and attention span.

Experiences in spelling during the early primary grades are not intended to be formal experiences, nor are they, for the most part, given for the sole purpose of instruction in spelling. The following may help develop spelling readiness:

1. Take advantage of situations that arise which can lead children to feel the need for writing, such as a field trip
2. Alert children in their early writing activities to the importance of correct spelling by suggesting that they check their own spelling.
3. As words become familiar to children, insist upon correct spelling in all practical writing.
4. In presenting a word, guide pupils in the following six necessary steps in learning to spell a word: see the word, hear the word, say the word, say the letters of the word, write the word, and check the word. Associate the word with its meaning, or with a "family" of words spelled a certain way if this is helpful. The teacher should remember that not all children need to use all six of these steps or to follow them in the same sequence.
5. Note any undesirable study habits a pupil may reveal and help him to learn preferable ones.
6. Encourage self-analysis of spelling difficulties.
7. Keep spelling instruction and practice suited to the individual pupil.

8. Teach no more words than the pupil can learn to spell successfully in the allotted time.
9. Provide varied writing activities which call for the use of words children have learned to spell.

Activities

1. Keep individual dictionaries. Pupils can make these dictionaries by stapling half pages and marking pages conspicuously in one corner to show the letter of the alphabet. When a child has trouble with a word, he can enter it on the appropriate page of his dictionary.
2. Keep a word box. A small cracker box is useful because it has room for cardboard dividers lettered alphabetically. When a child requests help in spelling a word, the teacher can write it in large letters on a slip of paper that has been cut to fit the box.
3. What's my word? A child chooses a word and gives clues, such as the meaning of the word, the beginning sound, etc. Other pupils try to guess the word, the pupil guessing the word pronounces it correctly, and all members of the group write the word. The pupil guessing the word chooses the next word.

By the time a child reaches the intermediate grades he should have enjoyed numerous writing activities and be able to spell many commonly used words. As he progresses, he will have more and more need for writing, and spelling will become even more important. During the middle grades the teacher keeps the following specific objectives in mind for each child:

1. To instill a desire to spell correctly an increasing number of words, and to use them more effectively.
2. To develop in the pupil the habit of proofreading his writing carefully.
3. To develop the habit of using reliable sources to determine the correct spelling of unknown or doubtful words.
4. To strengthen further the habit of following a specific procedure in learning to spell new words.

In addition to the procedures suggested for the primary grades, the following may be found helpful for intermediate grade pupils:

1. Using the dictionary for alphabetizing words ranging in difficulty from first and second letters to fourth or fifth letter; using guide

words; checking word meanings; using pronunciation aids; finding synonyms and antonyms. (See section of this guide on dictionary usage.)

2. Distinguishing word forms: words with silent letters (*ache, knew,* etc.); words often confused (*abroad - aboard*); words whose spelling involves punctuation (*o'clock, I've,* etc.); words with same sound represented by different letters (*ankle, uncle*); words with different sounds represented by the same letter; words with sounds often confused (*weather, whether*); words divided into syllables; and homonyms (*blue, blew; to, two, too*).
3. Building words by forming derivatives by adding suffixes; forming derivatives by adding prefixes; and forming compound words.
4. Studying word meanings by understanding words in context; matching words and meanings; identifying synonyms, antonyms, and contractions; differentiating between homonyms; understanding possessives; and learning meanings of prefixes and suffixes.

Evaluation

Evaluation involves determining how well the pupil actually uses the skills of spelling in all of his written work. Evaluation of the pupil's spelling, therefore, should be made in terms of the attitudes, the habits, and the skills he develops.

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READING

INTRODUCTION

Reading is quite properly considered the first of the three R's. In our culture it would be difficult to conceive of a situation in which large sections of the population would be unable to read. The use of the printed word is one of the great achievements of modern civilization, and it is cherished to such an extent that children in advanced societies are expected to learn to read at the earliest possible moment. In the United States the rate of illiteracy has spectacularly declined in the last fifty years, so that today only two percent or less are unable to read. However, the percentage of "functional illiterates" has been estimated at anywhere from ten percent to twenty-five percent. One who is "functionally" illiterate" is unable to read, with reasonable comprehension, the newspapers, magazines, and books which are addressed to the general public. Our task, therefore, is to achieve for the entire population a degree of skill in reading which is commensurate with the demands of our time.

Because reading is a complex task, one should not be surprised that there is much disagreement as to the techniques required for the development of proficiency in this art. The problem is complicated by the fact that children vary widely in their level of development when they reach school, and in the nature of their learning problems. It is therefore unwise to recommend any one method as a panacea which can solve reading problems for all children in all parts of the country. Teachers in Illinois schools use many different methods, frequently with approximately equal success. This is not to say, of course, that the most prevalent practices are necessarily the best practices. In this bulletin, the point of view is developed that different methods may be appropriate for different teachers and for different children. What has been called the "total" approach to reading, which includes many different methods, is here recommended.

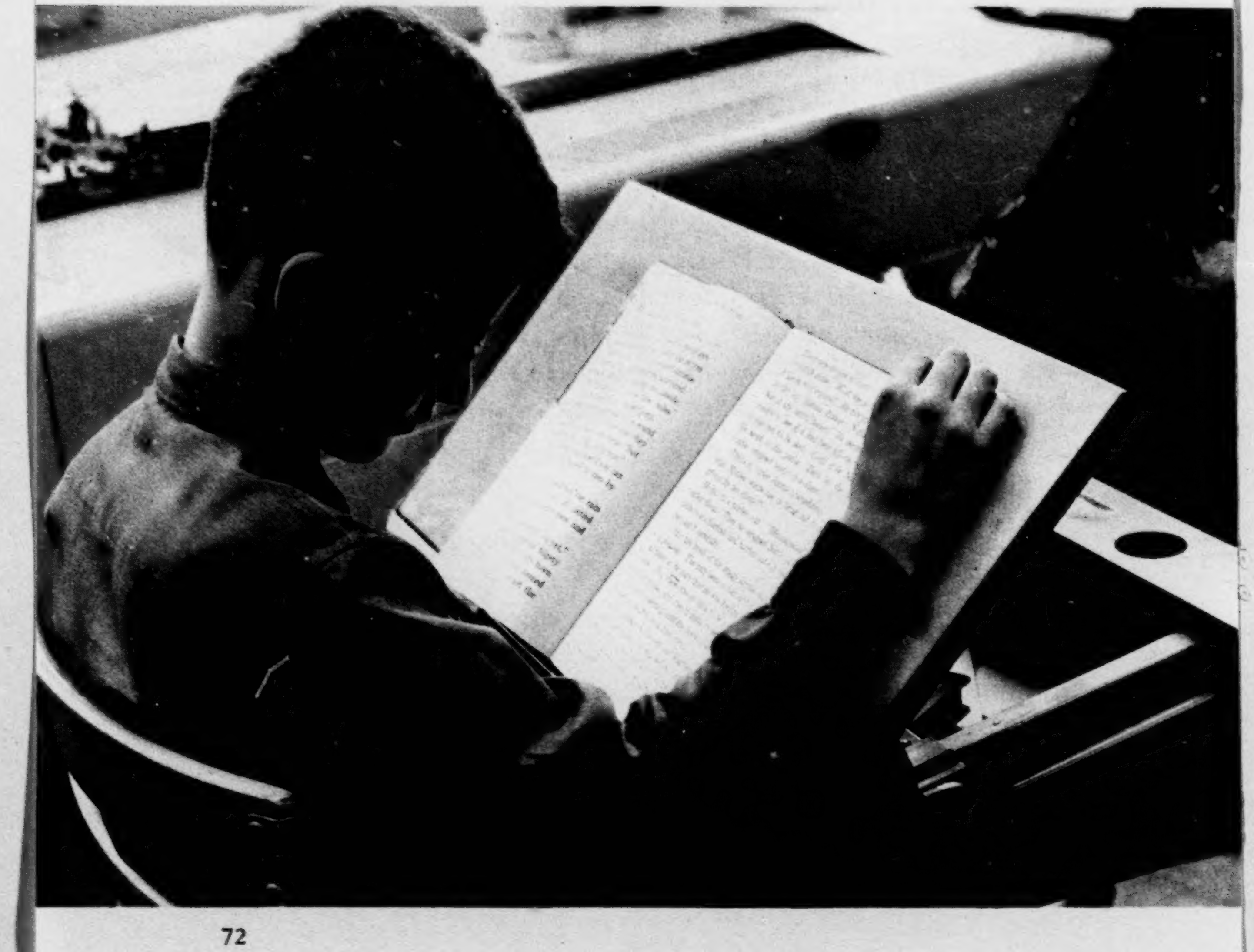
A Definition of Reading

Reading as discussed in this bulletin is a process of thought-getting. It is more than the mere sounding of words, or even the recognition of the meanings of individual words. It is the comprehension and interpretation of the ideas on the printed page as expressed by words-in-combination—in sentences, paragraphs, and longer passages. It is the ability to react independently and vigorously to what the author has to say. It is the product of continuous growth and guidance throughout the school years. Reading is inseparable from the process of thinking.

Readiness For Reading

Children entering school vary widely in their readiness for reading. A few may already have begun to read. Others are eager and ready to begin. Some have not reached the stage of maturity at which it would be profitable to attempt to teach them to read. Those who are not ready to learn to read at age six are not necessarily backward children, but may merely be slow developers.

It is inadvisable to undertake formal instruction in reading with pupils who are not "ready." In the first place, the effort put forth will not be at all commensurate with the results obtained. Moreover, the child's initial frustrations may result in basic fear and dislike of reading which may create serious emotional problems for years to come. It is better, in these cases, to substitute other constructive, creative, and social activities which will contribute to the child's maturity, and at the same time surround him with an environment conducive to a love of reading. Some studies have shown that in such cases the postponement of formal reading instruction may result in more rapid progress in later years.



The marks of reading readiness include mental age (a mental age of 6.5 years is thought by many to be essential to success in beginning reading); visual maturity; visual and auditory discrimination; experience background; a reasonable mastery of language; and social and emotional maturity. Many of these factors are difficult to measure, but the experienced teacher is alert to the many signs that reveal readiness. Most significant of all is the eagerness of the child to learn, and his success in his earlier experiences with the printed or written word. Except in the case of extremely retarded children, those who are not ready to read should participate normally in the general activities of the class. They should be exposed to books and other printed matter, and should be allowed to discuss with others the stories that are read aloud and talked about by teachers and classmates. We do not wait for readiness to develop by itself, but carefully cultivate it through numerous non-reading experiences.

Experiences in Reading: Word Recognition

Basic to instruction in reading, particularly in the early stages, is the development of "word recognition." This involves the appropriate sound and meaning associated with the printed symbol. The child should learn to employ at least five different methods of recognizing the words on the page. These are: sight vocabulary, contextual clues, phonics, structural analysis, and use of the dictionary.

First, let us consider the development of a basic *sight vocabulary*. Many words which are frequently encountered in textbooks and children's trade books can be recognized as "wholes" as easily as individual letters. Since it is desirable for the child's early experiences with reading to be meaningful, and since individual letters do not convey meaning, the child should be introduced at once to a limited number of whole words. By encountering these in different situations and different contexts, the child quickly acquires familiarity with these words, so that he can recognize them without hesitation. Word games, experience charts, pictures, primers, and picture books may be used in building this basic sight vocabulary.

One list of such words that is commonly used is the Dolch Sight Vocabulary, which follows:

BASIC SIGHT VOCABULARY OF 220 WORDS*

1. Since these 220 words make up from 50 percent to 75 percent of all ordinary reading matter, they should be recognized instantly by sight by all school children.

2. Pronounce these words as wholes.

3. Use word cards for teaching, not words in a list. Separate known words from unknown or uncertain, and speed the known until they "pop" into the child's mind instantly.

a
about
after
again
all
always
am
an
and
any
are
around
as
ask
at
ate
away

be
because
been
before
best
better
big
black
blue
both
bring
brown
but
buy
by

call
came
can
carry
clean
cold
come
could
cut

did
do
does
done
don't
down
draw
drink

eat
eight
every

fall
far
fast
find
first
five
fly
for
found
four
from
full
funny

gave
get
give
go
goes
going
good
green
grow

had
has
have
he
help
her
here
him
his
hold
hot
how
hurt

I
if
in
into
is
it
its

jump
just

keep
kind
know

laugh
let
light
like
little

---

*By E. W. Dolch

live
long
look

made
make
many
may
me
much
must
my
myself

never
new
no
not
now

of
off
old
on
once
one

only
open
or
our
out
over
own

pick
play
please
pretty
pull
put

ran
read
red
ride
right
round
run

said
saw
say

see
seven
shall
she
show
sing
sit
six
sleep
small
so
some
soon
start
stop

take
tell
ten
thank
that
the
their
them
then
there

these
they
think
this
those
three
to
today
together
too
try
two

under
up
upon
us
use

very

walk
want
warm

was
wash
we
well
went
were
what
when
where
which
white
who
why
will
wish
with
work
would
write

yellow
yes
you
your

Eventually as the child progresses in reading, the great majority of the words that he encounters on the printed page should be a part of his sight vocabulary.

After a child has mastered a few words which he can recognize instantaneously, he can often supply other words from the *context.* He can be taught, by adroit questioning, to make use of this device, especially if the text is accompanied by an appropriate illustration. Thus in the sentence, "The boy had a ball and a bat," most children would readily supply the word "bat" if it had not previously been in their recognition vocabulary. Context clues are particularly helpful if they are used in conjunction with other methods of word recognition.

Obviously the young child cannot acquire a sight vocabulary which will include all the words that he is likely to encounter. Very early in the process he needs to learn how to "unlock" new words by means of *phonetic and structural analysis.*

There are two basic approaches to phonetic analysis. One of these is a method in vogue many years ago, the so-called synthetic method. Under this plan, the child is first introduced to the basic sounds of the English language, and is then taught to combine the sounds into words. The other is to start with whole words and to point out similarities in the sound elements that make up the words. The latter plan is by far the more common, both in general practice and in the basal reader series.

Work with phonics involves a combination of visual and aural impressions. The words used to teach the phonic elements are usually those which are a part of the sight vocabulary. The first stage in phonics instruction involves the teaching of single consonants in the initial position in a word. These will usually include the letters *b,d,h,j,l,m,p,r, and v.* After children have recognized the sounds of these consonants at the beginning of words, they may be asked to supply other words which have similar beginnings. Next in order is usually the consonant in the final position, followed by the sounds of the short vowels in the medial position. Consonant blends like *st, gr, tr, cr, and str* come later, as do also the digraphs *th, sh,* and the like. The effect of the final silent "e," as in *late,* upon the length of the medial vowel can also be taught at this stage. Different series of basal readers employ various sequences, but the one just described is widely used.

Exercises for the development of phonic skill include such devices as the "word wheel," in which a central disc supplies the initial consonant or consonant blend and the outer disc the remainder of numerous words which have the same beginning; a tag board booklet with an initial consonant or consonant blend on each page and an elongated final page on which all the letters of the word except the initial letter or blend appear; asking children to supply substitutions for initial consonants or blends; identifying the one word in a series which begins differently from the others; identifying the one word in a series which contains the long sound of a medial vowel. These and other exercises suggested in basal readers or invented by the imaginative teacher may contribute to the orderly building of the basic skills involved in word recognition through phonics.

Another method employed in the building of skill in word recognition is known as *structural analysis.* Here the pupils are taught to recognize changes that occur in words because of inflections, and to recognize the syllables that make up a polysyllabic word, as well as compound words. Children can be called upon to identify the two familiar words in the one word *grandmother.* They can recognize the difference between *run* and *runs, walk* and *walked, play* and *playing.* Children can receive much aid in word recognition through the use of the *dictionary.* Numerous excellent picture dictionaries are now available for the primary grades. The following is a fairly comprehensive list:

Picture Dictionaries

Clemens, Elizabeth. *Pixie Dictionary.* Chicago: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1953. 60p.

Courtis, Stuart A. and Watters, Garnette. *Illustrated Golden Dictionary.* New York: Simon and Schuster, Inc., 1951. 544p.

Gatchel, Dorothy and Madden, Margaret. *Picture Dictionary to Read and Color.* New York: The Platt and Munk Co., Inc. 1948. 62p.

Grider, Dorothy. *My First Picture Dictionary.* Chicago: Follett Publishing Co., 1948. 32p.

Guild, Marion and Leder, Ruth. *My Picture Dictionary.* New York: Maxton Publishers, Corp., 1949. 32p.

MacBean, Dilla W. *Picture Book Dictionary.* Chicago: Children's Press Inc., 1952. 32p.

Moore, Lilian. *A Child's First Picture Dictionary.* New York: Grosset & Dunlap, Inc. 1948. 38p.

Oftedahl, Laura and Jacobs, Nina. *My First Dictionary.* New York: Grosset and Dunlap, Inc., 1948. 140p.

O'Donnell, Mabel and Townes, Willmina. *Words I Like to Read and Write.* Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson and Co., 1954. 160p.

Parks, Margaret Bittner. Young Readers Dictionary: *An Aid to Reading, Writing and Spelling.* New York: Grosset and Dunlap, Inc., 1955. 80p.

Reed, Mary and Oswald, Edith. *My Little Golden Dictionary.* New York: Simon and Schuster, Inc., 1949. 56p.

Scott, Alice and Center, Stella. *A Picture Dictionary for Boys and Girls.* New York: Doubleday and Co., Inc., 1949. 316p.

Walpole, Ellen Wales and Reed, Mary. *The Golden Dictionary.* New York: Simon and Schuster, Inc., 1944. 94p.

Watters, Garnette and Courtis, Stuart. *The Picture Dictionary for Children.* New York: Grosset and Dunlap, Inc., 1939, 1945, 1948. 383p.

Wright, Wendell W. and Laird, Helene. *The Rainbow Dictionary,* New York: The World Publishing Co., 1949. 433p.

One activity commonly employed in the pre-reading and early stages of learning to read, which may involve all five of the word recognition techniques described, is the use of experience charts. After a class has had such a common experience such as making a trip to the farm, a local dairy, or some other place of interest, the pupils dictate the story of their experiences to the teacher in the form of one-half dozen or so short sentences. The teacher writes these sentences on the chalk board as they are dictated to her, and afterwards transfers them, usually in large type, to a cardboard chart. After the story is repeated from the chart, the teacher puts it into strips representing individual sentences. Since the sentences are in the children's own words, they gradually learn to recognize the parts of the sentence which they themselves have contributed. Through repetition and brief daily reviews, they acquire a familiarity with the printed form of the words in a context which encourages close association between sound and meaning.

It must be remembered that some children acquire the various skills of word recognition almost unconsciously in the course of wide and well motivated reading. Drills in the various types of word recognition techniques should therefore not be indiscriminately given to whole classes regardless of individual needs. Much of the instruction should be in small groups or geared to the individual. Often the skills can be built or reinforced with the aid of reading games, either commercially produced or invented by the teacher.

The development of power in word recognition should not, however, be considered as the total of the process of instruction in reading. For one thing, reading is a means to an end, namely the development of a rich and full life for each child. The experiences which are helpful in improving reading are also conducive to the wholesome maturation of the child as a person. In our society, we do not separate the ideals of individual well-being from those of social progress. We need both a literate population to carry on the functions of the democratic society, and individuals who have found a degree of happiness and fulfillment through such activities as reading. For this reason, we must look for those elements which can contribute to the growth of reading ability, not only for the social welfare but also for the promotion of the meaningful life of the individual.

Teaching Comprehension and Interpretation

The ability to recognize individual words does not in itself guarantee fluent, thoughtful reading. Many of the purposes of reading involve such skills as: (1) Reading to find the main idea of a passage; (2) Reading to select significant details; (3) Reading to answer questions; (4) Reading to summarize and organize; (5) Reading to arrive at generalizations; (6) Reading to follow directions; (7) Reading to evaluate.

Children need to be taught to read words in sequence and combination, in phrases, sentences, paragraphs, and longer selections.

Again, some children learn this incidentally, but it is the responsibility of the teacher to make certain that each child masters these skills of comprehension.

The relationship between comprehension and interpretation is a very close one. In many respects they are one and the same thing, except that in more advanced reading material a passage may be subject to more than one legitimate interpretation. We usually refer to the reading of graphs, tables, charts, and maps as a form of interpretation. The following list of skills includes examples of the power to comprehend and interpret:

Studying words and increasing vocabulary.

Finding the central idea of a passage.

Following printed directions.

Selecting important points with supporting detail.

Reading quickly to find answers to questions.

Associating what is read with previous experiences.

Using the dictionary effectively.

Determining main facts to outline a selection.

Evaluating the validity of statements read.

Interpreting tables, charts, maps, and graphs.

Applying what is read to various problems and situations.

Understanding figurative language.

Recognizing multiple meanings of words.

Reading in the Content Subjects

Since nearly all of the so-called content subjects involve reading, the teacher should seize every opportunity to reinforce the reading skills of pupils in the various curriculum areas. Only by functional use of the skills in different situations can they be firmly established and be instrumental in promoting sturdy growth in reading.

The content subjects lend themselves especially well to the cultivation of certain reading skills. Among these are:

The ability to skim.

The ability to use locational aids: card file, index, table of contents, chapter headings and sub-headings, paragraph headings, glossaries, and topic sentences.

The ability to follow directions.

The ability to evaluate and apply information.

The ability to organize information.

The ability to use reference materials such as encyclopedias, atlases, periodicals, and almanacs.

The ability to make generalizations and to follow arguments.

The ability to outline and to take notes.

The ability to note specific details.

The ability to find the main idea of a passage.

In short, nearly all the skills of reading can be taught and should be taught at every opportunity, not just in the special reading class.

The need for providing a wide diversity of reading materials geared to the great range of abilities in the class is fully as great in the content subjects as in the reading class. The exclusive use of a single textbook in history or science may actually interfere with proper growth in reading. Thus a child whose reading ability is two or more years below the reading difficulty of the textbook may develop the habit of "reading" a page without making an effort to understand it. Constant confrontation with materials which a child cannot comprehend may result in a sense of fear or of hostility to the activity of reading.

Moreover, the special vocabularies of the content fields, including the special meanings of familiar words, such as "root" in nature study and in mathematics, require explicit explanation by the teacher.

In the content subjects, too, there are many opportunities to teach the skills of critical reading. Critical reading does not imply faultfinding or a settled attitude of skepticism toward the printed page. It calls for an attitude of independent evaluation of what is read. Thus boys and girls may learn how to distinguish between fact and opinion or inference, between the qualified and the unqualified writer, between material that is relevant and that which is irrelevant. Also, truly critical reading requires a rich background of experience and information.

Finally, one of the greatest contributions that can be made by the teacher of the content subjects is the development of keen and enduring interests in reading in the respective fields.

The Place of Oral Reading

In earlier times, reading in school meant oral reading. Today we know that the primary task is the development of silent reading abilities. Nevertheless, the ability to read well orally remains important. Although the occasions for oral reading outside of school are relatively infrequent, those occasions may be very significant in the life of the individual. Moreover, oral reading may help a child to attain self-confidence and poise in the presence of others.

Oral, or "audience" reading, should be purposeful. The purposes that a child may have in reading orally will vary. Sometimes the intent may be to share a good story or a poem. On another occasion it may be to prove a point or to illustrate an idea that has been discussed. But many opportunities should be available to every child to read aloud to his age-mates.

The Cultivation of Interests in Reading

Of primary importance in the teaching of reading to young children are the preservation and the development of keen interest in the process of reading. The great majority of children who first come to school look forward to learning to read. Some are slightly apprehensive, some skeptical, but most are ready for the kind of help which the first grade teacher can give. Basic to the program is a climate in which relaxation, friendliness, and the acceptance of each young person are dominant.

To create such an atmosphere, the teacher himself must be relaxed, friendly, and accepting. It becomes necessary for the teacher, therefore, to prepare for activities which will give each child a sense of belonging and a challenge to his abilities, without at the same time permitting the timid child to feel threatened by the expectations of the new and strange environment presented by the school.

Interest in reading is in large part cultivated by the classroom environment. The accessibility of many good books on the reading table, on the shelves, in the school library — books appealing to many interests and many levels of ability—can contribute much to the expansion of children's interests. The American Library Association recommends that schools of 200-999 pupils should have from 6,000 to 10,000 books, and spend at least $4.00 to $6.00 per year per pupil for library books when the enrollment is 250 or more.[1]

The Problem of Individualization

Much attention has been given in very recent years to the question of whether or not instruction in silent reading should be completely individual. Ever since the appearance of the first report on reading of the National Society for the Study of Education, which appeared in 1925, it has been emphasized that children differ widely in their rate of learning to read, and that instruction should be adapted to these differences. Only within recent years, however, has any widespread effort been made to make systematic provision for individual differences in reading. Moreover, there has been sharp debate as to the form that these provisions should take. Teachers in many parts of the country are experimenting with the use of "free" reading materials to the exclusion of basal readers. Others use basal readers, but select them from various levels of difficulty and from different publishers' series. The prevailing method in Illinois is to rely upon a standard series of basal readers.

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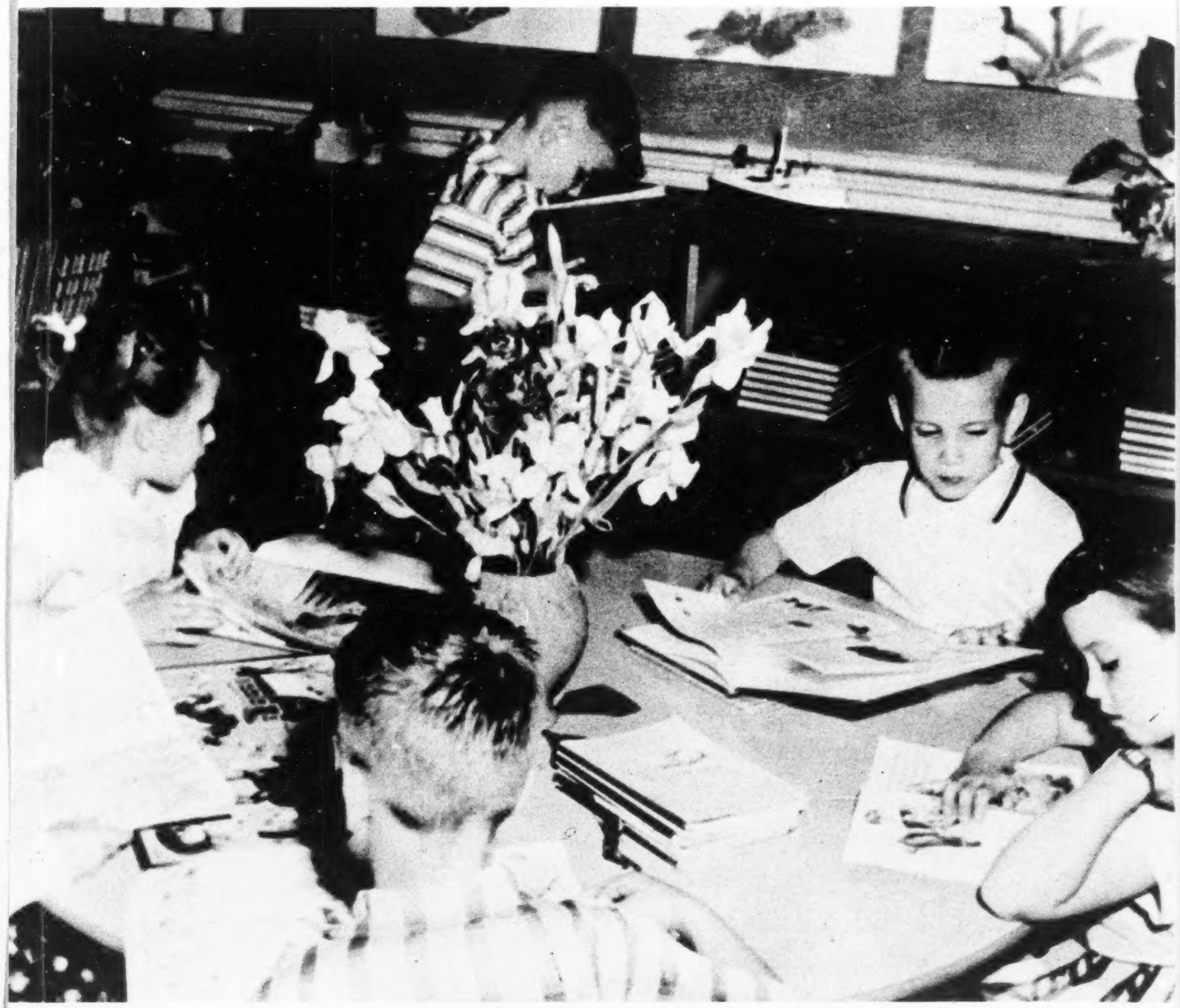
[1] For other standards see *Standards for School Library Programs* (1960 Edition), American Library Association, 50 East Huron Street, Chicago 11, Illinois.



It is clear that using a single basal reader for the whole class as the major instrument of reading instruction is inconsistent with the concept of individual differences. It is clear also that any reading program should place heavy reliance upon the building of keen voluntary interests in reading books on numerous topics appealing to different interests. Nevertheless, it would seem foolhardy to reject basal readers, which have been carefully prepared from the point of view of content and word control.

Many teachers try to meet the problem of individual differences by grouping their pupils according to their level of achievement in reading. This practice can be recommended if (1) the grouping is flexible, and children work with different groups as their levels of reading ability change, and (2) if their interests and relations with other children are taken into account.

Evaluation

In the evaluation of the school's reading programs, a few basic questions should be asked by the administration and the teaching staff. They are questions which parents and community leaders may well be encouraged to direct to the appropriate authorities.

1. Does our school make adequate provision for individual differences among children in reading ability and interest?
2. Do reading problems receive adequate attention in the so-called "content" subjects?
3. Does our school have a well-stocked library, which includes books on many levels of difficulty and appealing to many interests? Is the library supplied with the necessary reference aids? Is a qualified librarian in charge?
4. Does each classroom have a suitable collection of books, magazines, and newspapers which are frequently changed as new materials become available?
5. Does each teacher pursue a developmental program, in which the needed reading abilities of individual pupils are progressively cultivated?
6. Is sufficient emphasis placed upon the development of keen and enduring interests in reading?

Four major types of procedure are employed in the evaluation of children's progress in reading:

1. *Informal observation.* This is perhaps the most valuable, though least objective. The teacher takes note of a pupil's behavior during silent reading, observing such symptoms as head movement, lip reading, regressions in eye movements, failure to turn pages with some regularity. (The nature of the reading material will of course influence the teacher's

interpretation of these symptoms.) Most important of all is the observation of a pupil's voluntary choices in taking books from the library, and his enthusiasm, or lack of it, about what he has read.

2. *Oral reading.* In order to secure a rough estimate of a child's independent reading level and to discover his difficulties in word attack, the teacher may select a graded reading series, and ask the child to read sample passages, beginning with the easier book and proceeding to the more difficult ones. E. W. Dolch (*Elementary English,* March, 1951) has suggested a four-step plan in evaluating progress through the method of oral reading: In the first step, the teacher asks the pupil to read a passage he has not read before. When he comes to a word he does not recognize, the teacher supplies it. The purpose of this step is to discover the common words which the child does not know. In the second step, the pupil is asked to tell in his own words what he has read. The purpose of this step is to test comprehension. In step three, the pupil reads aloud once more, but the teacher does not supply the words. He asks the child, when he comes to an unfamiliar word, to tell what he thinks it means. The purpose of this step is to discover how well the pupil can make use of context. In step four, the child is asked how the unfamiliar word begins and what the letter sounds are. The purpose of this step is to discover how well the child can see phonics.

3. *Teacher-made tests.* Many teachers construct their own objective tests for specific selections they ask children to read. These may be true-false, multiple-choice, matching tests, short answer tests, or tests calling for filling in blanks. For other selections the reading books supply ready-made, non-standardized tests. Such tests are supplied also in exercise sets, such as the Science Research Associates Reading Laboratories.

4. *Standardized tests.*[1] A valuable aid in the evaluation of reading progress is the use of standardized tests. These may be *survey* tests, which reveal a pupil's approximate reading age or grade level, or *diagnostic* tests, which attempt to discover a pupil's strong points or weaknesses. Examples of widely used standardized reading tests are:

Sections of test batteries which include other curriculum areas:

Allen, Richard D., *et. al., Metropolitan Achievement Tests.* Chicago: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc.

Kelley, Truman L., *et. al., Stanford Achievement Tests.* Chicago: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc.

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[1] A valuable source of information is Oscar K. Buros' *Mental Measurements Yearbook.* The latest is the Fifth Mental Measurements Yearbook, Highland Park, N.J.: The Gryphon Press, 1959. Earlier editions, describing and evaluating standardized reading tests published in earlier years, are still very useful. All may be found in the larger libraries.

Spitzer, H. F., *et. al., Iowa Every-Pupil Tests of Basic Skills*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co.

Tregs, Ernest W. and Clark, Willis W. *California Achievement Test Batteries*. Los Angeles: California Test Bureau.

Independent survey tests of reading ability:

Durrell, Donald D. and Sullivan, Helen B. *Durrell-Sullivan Reading Capacity and Achievement Tests*. Chicago: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc.

Parker, Claudia M. and Waterbury, Eveline A. *Detroit Reading Test*. Chicago: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc.

Gates, Arthur I. *Gates Reading Survey for Grades 3-10*. New York: Bureau of Teachers College, Columbia University.

Lee, Murray and Clark, Willis W. *Lee-Clark Reading Tests*. Los Angeles: California Test Bureau.

Diagnostic tests of reading ability:

Gates, Arthur I. *The Gates Basic Reading Tests*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Columbia, University.

Englehart, Max D. and Thurstone, Thelma G. *The Chicago Reading Tests*. Eau Claire, Wisconsin: E. M. Hale and Co.

Greene, H. A. *et. al., Iowa Silent Reading Tests, New Edition*. Chicago: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc.

Sangren, Paul V. and Woody, Clifford. *Sangren-Woody Reading Test*. Chicago: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc.

Committee on Diagnostic Reading Tests, *Diagnostic Reading Tests*. New York: Kingscote Apt., 3G, 419 W. 119th St., N.Y. (27).

Bond, Clymer and Hoyt, *Developmental Reading Tests*. Chicago: Lyons and Carnahan.

Among the major publishers of reading tests are the following, from which free catalogs can be obtained on request:

Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Ill.

Educational Testing Service, Princeton, N.J.

California Test Bureaus, Los Angeles, Calif.

Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N.Y.

Science Research Associates, 259 E. Erie St., Chicago, Ill.

Committee on Diagnostic Reading Tests, Kingscote Apt. 3G, 419 W. 119th St., New York 27, N.Y.

Educational Test Bureau, Minneapolis, Minn.

Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., N.Y.

Houghton Mifflin Co., New York, N.Y.

SUGGESTED READING

The bibliography on the teaching of reading is so vast that any listing of suggested readings on the subject must be arbitrary. The following brief list includes only some of the best recent publications in book form. The titles suggested are available from bookstores, jobbers, or the publishers. Each school should have a minimum collection of books about reading available to teachers.

Arbuthnot, May Hill. *Children and Books.* Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1957.

Betts, Emmett A. *Foundations of Reading Instruction.* New York: American Book Co., 1954.

Blair, Glenn M. *Diagnostic and Remedial Teaching.* (Revised Edition). New York: The Macmillan Co., 1956.

Bond, Guy and Eva Bond Wagner. *Teaching the Child to Read.* (3rd Edition). New York: Macmillan Co., 1960.

Burton, William H. *Reading in Child Development.* Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Co., Inc., 1956.

Causey, Oscar S. (Editor). *The Reading Teacher's Reader.* New York: Ronald Press Co., 1958.

DeBoer, John J. and Martha Dallmann. *The Teaching of Reading.* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1960.

Dolch, E. W. *Psychology and Teaching of Reading.* (2nd Edition). Champaign, Illinois: Garrard Press, 1951.

Durrell, Donald D. *Improving Reading Instruction.* Chicago: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc. 1956.

Figurel, J. Allen (Editor). *Reading in A Changing Society.* International Reading Association Conference Proceedings, Volume 4. New York: Scholastic Magazines, 1959.

Gray, Lillian and Dora Reese. *Teaching Children to Read.* (2nd Edition). New York: Ronald Press, Co., 1957.

Gray, William S. and Nancy Larrick (Editors). *Better Readers for Our Times*. International Reading Association Conference Proceedings, Vol. I. New York: Scholastic Magazines, 1956.

Gray, William S. *On Their Own in Reading*. (Revised Edition). Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1960.

Gray, William S. (Editor). *Reading in Relation to Experience and Language*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1944.

Harris Albert J. *How to Increase Reading Ability*. (3rd Edition). New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1956.

Hester, Kathleen B. *Teaching Every Child to Read*. New York: Harper & Brothers 1955.

Hildreth, Gertrude. *Teaching Reading*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1958.

Jacobs, Leland B. and others. *Individualizing Reading Practice*. Practical Suggestions for Teaching. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1958.

Larrick, Nancy. *A Parent's Guide to Children's Reading*. Garden City, New York: Doubleday and Co., Inc., 1958.

Larrick, Nancy. *A Teacher's Guide to Children's Books*. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1960.

McKee, Paul. *The Teaching of Reading in the Elementary School*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1948.

McKim, Margaret G. *Guiding Growth in Reading*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1955.

Mackintosh, Helen K. (Editor). *Language Arts for Today's Children*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1954. pp. 114-205.

Meeker, Alice M. *Teaching Beginners to Read*. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Inc., 1958.

Monroe, Marion. *Growing into Reading*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1951.

Robinson, Helen M. (Editor). *Oral Aspects of Reading*. Proceedings of the Reading Conference of the University of Chicago. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1955.

Russell, David H. *Children Learn to Read*. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1949.

Strang, Ruth, and Dorothy Kendall Bracken. *Making Better Readers*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1957.

Strang, Ruth, Constance, M. McCullough, and Arthur E. Traxler, *Problems In the Improvement of Reading*. (2nd Edition). New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1955.

Tooze, Ruth, *Storytelling*. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1959.

Traxler, Arthur E., and Agatha Townsend. *Eight More Years of Research in Reading: Summary and Bibliography*. New York: Educational Records Bureau, 1955.

Veatch, Jeannette. *Individualizing Your Reading Program*. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1959.

Witty, Paul, *Reading in Modern Education*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1949.

Yoakam, Gerald A. *Basal Reading Instruction*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1955.

COMMON DEVELOPMENTAL TASKS

VOCABULARY DEVELOPMENT

The importance of early and continuous efforts to enlarge a pupil's stock of useful words can hardly be overestimated. The chief responsibility for building the appropriate attitudes and habits in the pupil lie with those concerned with the early stages of his education.

The point of view in this section is the result of these conceptions:

1. Vocabulary growth is closely related to growth in experience.
2. Within the school the development of vocabulary depends, first, upon providing a wide variety of experiences and, second, upon a continuing effort to provide the appropriate linguistic symbols.
3. The natural process of word study begins with speech, but must lead to language activities using visual symbols.

Vocabulary development is generally understood to be the result of two studies: one of concepts (used here in the sense of mental "images" deriving from experience) and the other of symbols, spoken or visual. There is general agreement that experience alone provides the mind with concepts for which the spoken or visual symbols must be provided as the need arises. In this view, experience may be regarded as roughly equivalent to vocabulary development. One does not, therefore, "get" or "acquire" a large vocabulary by accumulating a stock of words as symbols for definitions apart from concepts.

The classroom teacher should seek to provide experiences, actual and vicarious, which will increase the child's concepts. At the same time, the teacher should offer help in a continuing effort to increase the word symbols, spoken or visual, which enable the pupil to deal with these concepts.

Our earliest and most important developmental experiences with language are entirely the result of vocalizing. Continued growth in linguistic skill depends, in large part, on the frequency of the child's encounters with oral expression. As a result, the most natural process of vocabulary development is closely related to experience with spoken language, while the most artificial process is that which relates to one's experience with the visual symbols for that same spoken language. The process of vocabulary study in school seems to be most effectively furthered when regarded as progress along a path from experience on to spoken language and at last to visual language symbols.

Objectives

The objectives of vocabulary study at any level may best be described in terms of skills which seem both possible and desirable for a pupil to acquire. These skills may be seen in relation to the various types of language activity: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. In listening and in reading, a pupil exercises what we call an understanding vocabulary; in speaking and writing he exercises both an understanding and a creative vocabulary. In both activities the sounds of words are of considerable importance; hence, the skill of effective and accurate pronunciation should be regarded as a primary objective in vocabulary study.

A second objective is the skill of determining the meanings of new words, meanings which establish a firm and clearly understood relationship between the sound or sight of the word and the concept for which it is a symbol.

A third objective is skill in determining the various meanings of the same word as it functions in various contexts.

The kindergarten and primary grades direct and control vocabulary building through spoken language. Two objectives suggest themselves as most important at this stage: first, is the need to foster the child's natural desire to use new words, and, second, the need to arouse the child's interest in acquiring a varied vocabulary. The most important skill related to this objective appears to be that of discovering the meaning of new words encountered in listening.

In addition, the skills required to discover the meaning of new words in listening are transferred and broadened in scope to include the discovery of the meanings of words encountered in their visual form. Recognition of words already in the child's speaking vocabulary can lead to recognition of new words, the need for which grows out of new experiences.

Another phase of vocabulary building that seems to be valuable is the ability to accept the varied meanings which a word may have in varying contexts, e.g., dough, tramp, watch, ring, etc. In addition, a concern with synonyms and antonyms, their meanings and uses, contributes to the child's growing vocabulary.

The child with maturity learns to read with increasing discrimination. The child may be led to recognize those words, phrases, and sentences which have a particular strength or aptness.

The pupil's sensitivity to word values deserves increasing attention. Particularly is this true in teaching to avoid the overworked words and phrases and in teaching to use words with conscious discrimination. Children can be introduced to the origin and history of words. An exploration of words borrowed from other languages, coined to meet a need, or those with common roots not only alerts pupils to the development of the English language and its vagaries of spelling, but offers further extension of dictionary usage. Vocabulary building in the intermediate grades should be a continuous, developmental effort based upon previous skills, insights, and experiences.

Activities

There are many sources of activities designed to encourage vocabulary building. These are readily available to the teacher, but no device is quite so effective as the alert instructor aware of the importance of the study of words and eager to take advantage of every opportunity to help the pupils' growth. Careful pronunciation in speaking and reading aloud, the encouragement of pupils' use of words in varying contexts, and frequent reference to the dictionary for definitions from which to draw meanings—these are instances of the teacher's role in meeting this responsibility.

Following are some suggested activities as means of developing vocabulary:

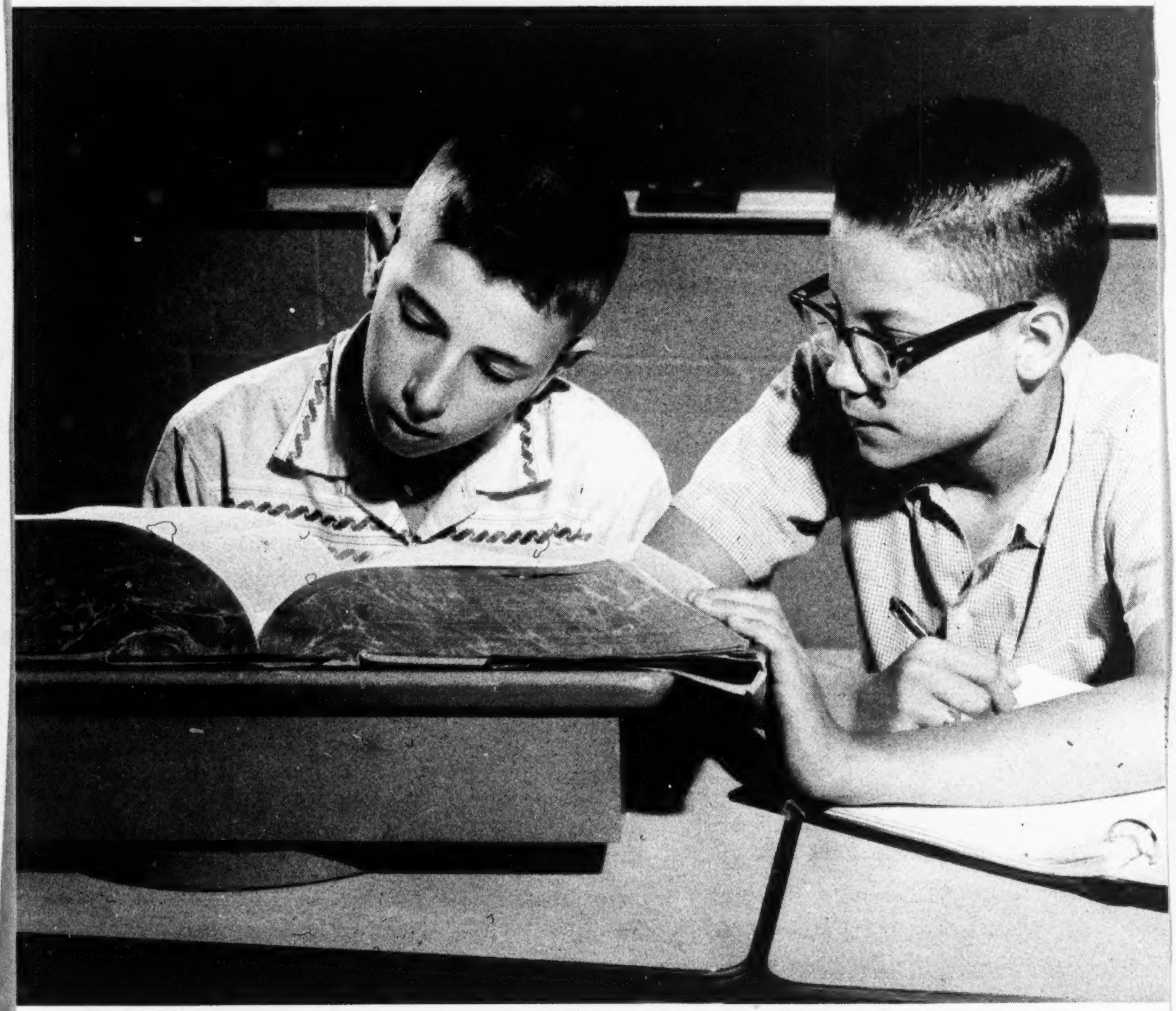
1. Taking field trips.
2. Using audio-visual aids.
3. Reading pertinent and interesting material orally.
4. Conversing, reporting, and discussing.
5. Using blackboards and charts
6. Building personal dictionaries of new words.
7. Using pictures to suggest descriptions or stories.
8. Listing words in categories, e.g., food, clothes, drink, homes.
9. Substituting precise words for general, e.g., nice, good.
10. Dramatizing of words, e.g., scamper, skip, stumble.

Many word games may be devised by the creative teacher or may be borrowed from many sources. Family assistance in helping the child to a greater command of words should be encouraged. Increasingly, as the child advances through the grades, the dictionary and reading habits should be cultivated.

Evaluation

Properly conducted, the program in vocabulary building should continue throughout the school year. Daily it should provide some basis for an insight into the progress made by the pupils toward acquiring the skills described at the outset as objectives. These involve proper pronunciation, the ability to perceive meanings of new words, and the ability to recognize the varied meanings resulting when a word moves from one context to another.

Word meaning tests are available, but many teachers choose to devise their own, concentrating upon those words which have evolved from the pupils' experiences in classroom or field. The keeping of individual word lists will provide both pupil and teacher a continuing basis for determining vocabulary growth. But the most important evaluation is that which looks to the performance of the pupil in all the other areas of instruction, in reading, writing, in work with numbers, in studies of other lands and peoples, etc. In short, proper evaluation of vocabulary growth is best seen in the light of evaluation of the pupil's progress in the total process of education.



USE OF THE DICTIONARY

Because the skills involved in the use of the dictionary develop slowly and require constant guidance, they should be introduced logically and developed gradually, until the dictionary serves the children as a valuable tool.

In general, it is during the primary grades that the teacher introduces the use of simple dictionaries. At the primary level experiences are made meaningful through the use of the class dictionary, picture dictionaries, and the beginning of the usage of the personally made dictionary. Emphasis is placed at this level on meaning and spelling. The third or fourth grade teacher assumes the responsibility for the formal instruction.

Objectives

1. To help the children to recognize the dictionary as a basic source of certain kinds of information.
2. To foster the feeling of success in growing independence in writing.
3. To increase ability to broaden vocabulary.
4. To build confidence in attacking unfamiliar words.
5. To provide a source of reference for familiar words in unfamiliar context.
6. To develop a facility in locating entries with a minimum of effort.
7. To equip pupils with a means of discovering correct pronunciation.
8. To establish the habit of using the dictionary to check spelling.
9. To familiarize the children with the multiple uses of the dictionary.

Sequence and Development

The children should have an opportunity to become familiar with the picture dictionary in the primary grades. This is an excellent readiness device which generally presents words in most of the following ways:

1. Picture and caption.
2. Simple explanation of word.
3. The word used in a sentence.
4. The word in a quotation.
5. The word and its antonym in a sentence.

(See the section on reading in this guide.)

The pupils' readiness for instruction in locational skills should include:

1. Recognizing the letters and learning the name of each.

2. Learning the consecutive arrangement of letters in the alphabet.
3. Becoming familiar with the location of the letters in relation to each other.
4. Making alphabetical arrangement of words beginning with a limited group of different letters.

At the third or fourth grade level when pupils begin the actual use of the dictionary, children use it primarily as a spelling and/or meaning tool. As they progress and refer to it for pronunciation, the teacher begins with unfamiliar words which follow the principles of pronunciation. Later, when they encounter words which do not follow phonetic principles, they are taught to rely upon their dictionaries for such exceptions. Confidence is built through experience and instruction in three areas—location, pronunciation, and meanings.

1. Location includes making alphabetical arrangement of words beginning with the same letters; understanding the alphabetical order which extends to second and third letters, etc.; becoming familiar with relative positions of letters in quarters of the volume; using guide words in locating word on a page; and realizing that words are listed by root forms.
2. Pronunciation covers enlisting the aid of diacritical markings for accepted pronunciation, comprehending the use of the accent mark, learning the use of respelling to show pronunciation, and recognizing the meaning and use of syllabication.
3. Meanings include choosing the definition to suit the context, employing the dictionary for correct use of homonyms, relying upon the dictionary for various meanings of a common word, understanding abbreviations in the dictionary, turning to definitions of synonyms and antonyms in order to complete meanings.

Activities

1. Asking questions which require remembering the position of letters:
   Is H near the beginning or the end of the alphabet?
   Which letters live next door to R?
2. Finding words in a catalogue or telephone directory:
   Toys, boats, dolls (mail order catalogue).
   Names of certain children (telephone directory).
3. Pointing to a letter on alphabet chart and asking children to continue the alphabet from there on.

4. Alphabetizing class list of names by first letter.
5. Examining quarters of the dictionary to see which letters are in each.
6. Listing guide words connected with each word of social studies vocabulary.
7. Extracting root forms of words on spelling list.
8. Placing accents on accented syllable of familiar two-syllable words.
9. Writing sentences in phonetic spelling for class to translate.
10. Choosing pairs of rhyming words to match lists of vowels diacritically marked.
11. Substituting synonyms for words without rewording sentences:
    You go ahead and we'll meet you afterwards.
    You go ahead and we'll meet you later.
12. Paraphrasing sentences to accommodate general meanings:
    Judy looked puzzled. Judy looked as if she didn't understand.
13. Building sentences using common words in different contexts:
    Band—support—etc.
14. Identifying a few parts of speech in a list of words and placing abbreviations beside each part.
15. Searching through the dictionary to find and to identify abbreviations of language, sciences, etc.
16. Giving the meaning of a word plus the meaning of a synonym found in its definition.

Evaluation

1. Are the children using the dictionary to check the words they need in writing?
2. Have they developed a sense of responsibility toward the dictionary as a source of help?
3. Is there evidence of a broader choice of words in their stories?
4. Have pupils required less help with pronunciations and spellings of unfamiliar words?
5. Do they handle the volume with efficiency?

ENGLISH USAGE

The terms grammar and usage have been used synonymously so frequently that a great deal of misunderstanding has arisen about the proper place of each in the elementary school program. Technically, grammar means a scientific treatment of classes of words, their inflections and relation to each other, their functions and relations in the sentences, the study of forms of speech and the right use and application of rules of language in speaking or writing. Obviously, this is not of major concern to our elementary schools today. In the traditional schools a large part of the time was spent in just such study under the assumption that the learning would transfer in some way and the children would become fluent writers. The results were far from satisfactory, and there are few advocates today of formal grammar for elementary schools, especially below the seventh grade.

Many teachers erroneously interpreted the elimination of grammar to mean that English usage should not be included either, but such was not the intention of most specialists in the field of language. English usage refers to accepted patterns of speaking and writing which are in current standard use. Standards and patterns of usage are in a constant state of change, and teachers need to be aware of these modifications.

The foundations for English usage are laid at home and in the primary grades. Skills will be refined and supplemented as the pupil matures. It is well to remember that language is acquired by imitation and usage more readily than by rules. Certain rules and principles are helpful, but they should be arrived at concretely through an inductive method just as in the teaching of a principle of mathematics. Usage should make its unique contribution to the sum total of language attitudes and skills, but it is not the most important end result.

Objective

The basic objective of instruction in English usage is to facilitate effective communication. This involves the development of the following abilities in the child:

1. Recognize the sentence as the basic unit of thought.
2. Avoid fragmentary and run-on sentences by thinking about the meanings.
3. Understand the relationships that exist in the ideas to be expressed so that the use of connectives such as: after, which, until, because, when, for, and as are utilized appropriately and subordination in writing will result in sentences of more interest and depth.

4. Identify subjects and predicates, nouns and verbs, by the part they play in the sentence.
5. Increase proficiency in recognizing correct verb forms and subject-verb agreements.
6. Improve skills of punctuation and capitalization.
7. Express thoughts in larger units than the sentence, such as paragraphs.
8. Eradicate the crudities of expression as listed by Pooley.[1]

ain't or *hain't*
hair *are*
a orange
have *ate*
he *begun*
was *broke*
he *brung*
climb (short *i*)
clumb
he *come*
have *did*
he, she, it *don't*
I *drunk*
didn't, hadn't ought
was *froze*
he *give*
I *got* for *I've got*
my brother, *he* (and other double subjects)
her, him and *me* went
hisself
there *is, was* four
knowed; growed, etc.
learn me a song
leave me go
me and Mary went
haven't *no* haven't *nothing*
he *run*
have *saw*
I *says*
he *seen*
them books
theirselves
this here
that there
us boys went
we, you, they *was*
with *we* girls
have *went*
have *wrote*
it is *yourn, hern, ourn, theirn*

A teacher should remember that whatever method of teaching is followed, it is far better to stress improvement of self-expression with variety, interest, and vividness than to teach definitions and rules divorced from actual writing. English usage should not be separated from the speaking and actual writings of children, both creative and practical.

Evaluation

To evaluate a growing proficiency in English usage, a teacher may utilize the following guides:

1. Are the children expressing themselves adequately in complete sentences?
2. Are the sentences of varying length, depending upon the maturity of the writer and the thoughts expressed?

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[1] R. C. Pooley, *Teaching English Usage*, p. 180. Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., New York, 1946.

3. Are most common errors of capitalization and punctuation disappearing from written work?
4. Do the children speak and write clearly with few errors in verb forms and subject-verb agreement?
5. Are the children able to speak and write at length on a topic with an increasingly smaller number of substandard usages?

EVALUATION OF A LOCAL PROGRAM

The evaluation of any instructional program in the language communication area is an attempt to determine the extent to which clearly defined objectives are being translated into action and actually reached.

The purpose of such an appraisal is to discover whether the learning experiences, the instructional approaches, and the materials employed have demonstrably enabled each pupil to achieve reasonable expectancies in the gradual development of his language abilities.

Evaluation of growth in language abilities must be preceded by accurate identification of pupil competencies and deficiencies. A variety of methods to appraise pupil growth should be utilized by each teacher. Informal teacher-made tests, his observation and judgment, product and merit scales, score cards, checklists, tape recordings, and standardized tests can all serve to measure different facets of indivdual or group performance.

At the beginning of the school year the administration of standardized tests will assist the teacher to identify the specifics which these appraisals indicate need review, reteaching, or reenforcement. Standardized tests which provide the teacher with data on the achievement of typical children of a certain age or grade, can be administered and scored objectively, and are general enough in content to serve most schools.

Throughout the year quick quizzes, informal objective tests, practice exercises and activities in proofreading will alert the teacher to the kinds of progress being made in the mechanics of writing, such as punctuation, capitalization, and spelling. Handwriting scales and directed practice periods are useful in improving speed and legibility of penmanship. Techniques for evaluating the functional and creative writing of pupils or their improvement in effective oral language need to be developed for each class on the basis of individual pupil potential and growth.

It is difficult indeed to measure such intangibles as interests, attitudes, adjustments in personality, work habits, and the desire to participate in the language program, but all are vital; and again teacher judgment plays an important part in evaluation. Whenever possible the pupils should be included in the evaluation of their own work. Self-evaluation serves as a powerful motivating factor and as a basis for the improvement of one's work. In any evaluation teachers must never lose sight of the main goal of communication—creative and fluent expression that develops from an on-going interest in improving the mechanics of effective communication.

Selected Evaluation Questions

Evaluation findings should lead to more constructive guidance for pupils. In order to achieve maximum results from evaluation activities, the school staff should consider the adequacy of the English language communications program as a whole; the effectiveness with which it serves the pupils; and the changes in teaching methods and materials explicit in an analysis of research findings and the study of local philosophical values and plant facilities pertaining to language instructions.

It may be helpful to explore each of these points by proposing some general and specific questions as springboards for more intensive examination by interested staff groups.

I. *The appraisal of broad curricular and instructional practices in a school must include a discussion of and some measure of agreement by administrators, teachers, and school patrons on questions such as the following*:

   A. Are the goals for language communication instruction clearly understood by the school and community, and are opportunities for their fulfillment organized in a systematic developmental program?

   B. Does the program provide adequate emphasis upon learning experiences in listening, speaking, reading and writing?

   C. Does the instruction utilize a variety of materials to serve flexible grouping, differentiated assignments, and individual interests and competencies in the classroom?

   D. Is comparable provision made for those pupils who need remedial instruction and for those who have particular talents?

   E. Are movies, recordings, radio, field trips, community resource persons, and ETV, where available, used to enrich and reenforce classroom instruction?

   F. How effective are the services of the school and/or public library in supplementing and supporting the language communication program?

   G. What opportunities does the faculty have to explore, select, and evaluate the approaches and materials of instruction?

   H. Is continued emphasis placed upon in-service training of teachers to interpret goals, to stimulate creative teaching, and to provide opportunities for professional growth?

   I. Does the administration properly assume the responsibility for interpreting the program to the public and give thoughtful consideration to the ways in which it can best assist the school in achieving desired improvement?

II. *The effectiveness of the language communications program for children in the elementary school can be evaluated realistically by seeking answers to selected questions related to each of the four major phases of communication*:

A. *Speaking*:

1. Are the teachers providing opportunities for growth so that the pupil's speech reflects a growing awareness for clear, acceptable, and effective oral expression?
2. Are experiences utilized to enable the pupil to develop teachniques for active participation in group discussion and a courteous acceptance of differences of opinion?
3. Are provisions made for the pupil's organization and delivery in various oral activities to demonstrate increased discrimination in the choice of words, the selection of pertinent ideas, and the variety of approaches for maximum effectiveness?
4. Are children increasing in ability to choose suitable topics, and do they keep to the point through a logical organization of facts?
5. Are pupils growing in the ability to speak distinctly and correctly?
6. If a tape recorder is available, is it used for self-evaluation of oral expression?
7. Do children read selections with increased feeling for the written word they are interpreting?
8. Do the children use audio-visual aids in reporting to the class?
9. Are the pupils developing the poise that makes for effective oral delivery?

B. *Listening*:

1. Does the program provide opportunities for pupils to develop listening skills that promote learning, and acquire information such as announcements and taking notes?
2. Are pupils choosing more discriminatively and listening more critically in their selection of music, television programs, and movies?
3. Are children becoming increasingly aware of sensory impressions conveyed by vivid word pictures in stories they hear?

4. Are children growing in ability to follow spoken directions?
5. Are the better television commercial programs for children being used to advantage in the classroom?
6. Are children able to listen critically and to analyze advertisements, political speeches, newscasts, and promotions?
7. Have pupils been alerted to the techniques characteristic of bias or propaganda so that they can recognize these approaches by a speaker?

C. *Writing*:

1. Are opportunities provided to encourage the pupil to write for a variety of purposes—to explain, to persuade, to discuss, to defend, to share?
2. Is an appreciation of the economic and social necessity for the accepted usage and legible handwriting in all written communication being developed?
3. Does the program stress the importance of proofreading? Are teachers leading their pupils to grow in their ability to select, express, arrange, and revise the substance of their writing?
4. Have pupils developed a discrimination for the appropriate, the succinct, the exact in language that will best convey their intended meaning?
5. Are ample opportunities provided for many experiences in creative writing?
6. Are sentence structure and form improving in keeping with the maturity and experience of the writer?
7. In the area of English usage, is attention paid to handwriting, spelling, punctuation, capitalization, manuscript form, and general appearance of the paper?

D. *Reading*:

1. Are the teachers aware of the varied interests and differences in abilities within individual pupils, and is instruction provided at these levels?
2. Are efforts made to encourage voluntary reading, and does it reflect a range of interest and a choice of good literature?

3. Are teachers providing instruction in workable techniques which the pupil can use independently for attacking unfamiliar words, getting meaning from context, pacing his reading for specific purposes?
4. Are opportunities provided for efficient and intelligent usage of the dictionary and other reference books?
5. Is pupil growth in reading competence regularly and reliably measured, and are his performance results used diagnostically?
6. Does instruction in all classes include attention to special terminology, interpretation of particular content and format, and practice in the use of charts, graphs, and visual aids which demand reading skills peculiar to certain subject matter?

III. *A review of research findings, the analysis of standardized test results, the adequacy of plant facilities, and the values being emphasized should point up those aspects of the program which need re-examination, modification, and reinforcement.*

A. Does the program provide opportunities for desirable habits of listening and speaking to be practiced in out-of-school activities?

B. Are real-life situations utilized for the pupils to write clear, correct, and effective letters, notes, reports, etc. as the occasion demands?

C. Are provisions made for the pupils to grow in their ability to evaluate critically newspapers, periodicals, advertisements, radio, and TV presentations?

D. Do the teachers foster in the pupils an on-going interest in and appreciation for the persuasion of words?

E. Does the program advance the pupils' competencies and interest in reading to such an extent that the pupils are making a more diversified and mature selection of reading materials?

F. Has instruction been such that the pupil's background of language has been adequate for satisfactory growth in the seventh and eighth grades?

Summary

Sound evaluation is a continuous process that examines the pupil's application of language arts skills in the total school program and in those

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home and community activities in which he engages. Certain aspects of his competency need to be determined by objective measurement as he progresses through school. Equally important, however, are those observable but often immeasurable indicators of growth which are reflected in a pupil's improved attitude toward language; in the extent and quality of his voluntary reading; in a more discriminating selection of radio and television programs; and in his greater sensitivity for using appropriate language to suit the occasion.

The impact of new events, new discoveries, and new human goals permeates, vitalizes, and channels the uses of language more rapidly than ever before. The school and the community share a joint responsibility for evaluating the quality and effectiveness of the language goals set for pupils whose very survival may well depend upon their being informed, alert, and articulate citizens.

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